

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXIII

SEPTEMBER 1915

NUMBER 7

## THE ENGLISH PARISH AND EDUCATION AT THE BEGINNING OF AMERICAN COLONIZATION<sup>1</sup>

CARL RUSSELL FISK  
University of Wisconsin

Many of the Englishmen who came to America in the first half of the seventeenth century were personally familiar with the rural economy of the manor. Some had been members of the old city companies, some of the newly rising stock companies, and a few had taken part in borough or county government. All of them had belonged to some parish, and while there was a very great diversity in the form of parish government, to belong to a parish meant nearly everywhere to take part in its activities.

*The Complete Parish Officer*, as late as 1772, described the vestry as the assembly of the whole parish. Of course the "whole parish" did not include every inhabitant in the modern sense, but it was broad enough to bring in most of those who played any prominent part in setting up the institutions of the New World.<sup>2</sup> In 1772 this description was in general only technically true, and the vestry actually consisted in most cases of a few gentlemen

<sup>1</sup> The notes upon which this study is based were for the most part gathered in England during 1903. In addition to the material, printed and manuscript, in the British Museum, many manuscript parish records of the eastern counties were examined. The results were so incomplete for the purpose intended that nothing was done with them. This article is offered, not as in any way exhaustive, but merely as suggestive and illustrative.

<sup>2</sup> *The Complete Parish Officer*, London, 1772 (16th ed.), p. 174.

who filled their own vacancies. There is, however, abundant evidence that at the time of the migration it represented a living fact. Thus the *Record Book of Parish Proceedings* of St. Margarets, Lothbury, opens in 1571: "Ordinances mad by the hole consent of the parishiners."<sup>2</sup> In 1583 the churchwardens' accounts of Lindfield contain the item: "The whole p'ishe hathe consented, and the chefest in the name of the rest, whose names are under written to make a Landscott for a rep'acions of the Church."<sup>3</sup> In 1599, at Houghton-le-Spring, "it was agreed by the gentlemen and the XXIIIj of this parish."<sup>4</sup>

The business for which the whole parish was called upon to act was sometimes the raising of a rate, as at Lindfield,<sup>4</sup> or at Kirton-Lindsay, in Lincoln, where in 1557 "yt was agreed by hole bodye of the paryshe to give for every plough i peck of peas and for every plough i bundell of barlye to be sowne to the common use of the town."<sup>5</sup> Such rate-raising, however, seems to have been only occasional, and the chief business of the parish meeting was the election of officers.

The most important of these were the two wardens. The "London custom" at this time was for the parish to choose one one year, and one the next.<sup>6</sup> While the consent of the rector or vicar was apparently necessary, and differences of method existed, it seems that at this period such election at parish meeting was general. As in the case of some New England town offices, refusal to serve sometimes was the occasion of a fine.<sup>7</sup> Other officers

<sup>2</sup> *The Vestry Minute Books of Saint Margaret Lothbury* (edited by Edwin Freshfield, London, 1887), I.

<sup>3</sup> Sussex Archeological Society, *Collections*, XIX, 40.

<sup>4</sup> Surtees Society, *Publications*, LXXXIV, 276; see also *History of the Church and Manor of Wigan*, Cheltham Society, N.S., XVI, 275.

<sup>5</sup> Sussex Archeological Society, *Collections*, XIX, 40.

<sup>6</sup> Society of Antiquaries, *Proceedings*, 2d Ser., II, 386.

<sup>7</sup> *Saint Margaret Lothbury*, XVII; see also *Archeologia*, I, 48-52 (St. Stephens London, John Davenport's parish).

<sup>8</sup> Thomas North, *The Accounts of the Churchwardens of Saint Martins Leicester* (Leicester, 1884), p. 121; see also *Accounts of the Churchwardens of the Parish of Saint Michael Cornhill . . . from 1456-1608* (edited by W. H. Overall, London, 1871), pp. 200-206 (1504).

were also properly chosen by the parish, as the Sidesmen.<sup>1</sup> The most important elections, however, at the time the first American colonists were growing up, were not of officers, but of a committee. In Morebath, as early as 1527, "the four," or "the five," or "the nine" were "chosen to govern the parish in all causes concerning the wealth of the church."<sup>2</sup> As the *Complete Parish Officer* says: "In large populous parishes a custom has obtained of yearly chusing a certain number of the chiefest and most reputable men to represent the rest."<sup>3</sup> This number was often twenty-four,<sup>4</sup> sometimes twelve,<sup>5</sup> sometimes six.<sup>5</sup>

These committees or "select vestries," with their general representative functions, resembling so exactly those of the selectmen of the New England town, were destined to absorb the powers of the whole parish and to exclude the remainder of the parishioners from all participation in affairs. In fact parish organization was, after 1615, the subject of much discussion. In 1637 a questionnaire of ten pages concerning the powers of parishes was sent out to the Justices of the Peace.<sup>6</sup> In 1636 the parish of St. Peters at Ipswich paid ten shillings to counsel "to be advised . . . whether a parrish paying tyethes in kinde could be compelled to make a rate or not."<sup>7</sup> The central authorities seem to have favored the transition to the less popular system. In 1619 a document, said to be by order of the Bishop of London, was read to the parish meeting of St. Alphage, London Wall, directing the

<sup>1</sup> *The Complete Parish Officer*, pp. 137; but by 1772 provision was made for a failure of the parish to choose.

<sup>2</sup> Rt. Rev. Bishop Hobhouse, *Church Wardens Accounts, of Croscomb, Pilton, Patton, Tuinhull, Morebath, and St. Michaels, Bath, 1349-1560*, Somerset Record Society, 1890, XVIII.

<sup>3</sup> *Complete Parish Officer*, p. 174.

<sup>4</sup> For instance at Houghton-le-Spring, 1599-1658, Surtees Society, *Publications*, LXXXIV, 276-323; *Materials for the History of the Church of Lancaster*, Chetham Society, LVIII, 60; LXXXIV, 276-223.

<sup>5</sup> *The Church Wardens Accounts of St. Michael in Bedwardine, Worcester* (edited by John Amphlett, Oxford, 1896), p. 157 (1599); Surtees Society, *Publications*, LXXXIV, 27 (parish of Pitlington, 1588).

<sup>6</sup> *Calendar of State Papers, Domestic*, XXLV, No. 46.

<sup>7</sup> *Church-wardens accounts of St. Peters, Ipswich*, MSS, Add. MSS, Brit. Mus., No. 25344, f. 74.

election of "twenty-four inhabitants who together with the Parson and church wardens and noe more," are to form a select vestry, as "this meeting" has become "noisy and ill-conducted."<sup>1</sup> This direction, however, apparently was not followed,<sup>2</sup> and in general during this period open parish meetings freely electing "assistants" or "select vestries" seem to have been the rule.<sup>3</sup>

As the parish organization had important resemblances to that of the New England town, so did its functions. Not that they were by any means as extensive. In England the clergyman, the head of the parish, came by the dispensation, if not of heaven, at least, except where the feoffee system had brought emancipation,<sup>4</sup> by that of outside forces, supposed to be its representatives. His support was derived from tithes that seemed of geologic permanence. The parish did not possess, as did the New England town, resources of unused land. It was nearly always totally apart, as the New England town was not for many years, from the agricultural system. It was not generally responsible for roads and bridges. It inherited in most cases the plant of its main business, religion, in the church, parsonage, and attendant necessities. Yet enough remained to excite a reasonable concern among those charged with its affairs.

The day of providing elaborate vestments and jeweled chalices<sup>5</sup> had passed away long before, but that of Morris plays, on the expense side,<sup>6</sup> and of the sale of church bread and ale on that of income,<sup>7</sup> vanished within the memory of the first colonists. If

<sup>1</sup> G. B. Hall, *Records of St. Alphage, London Wall* (London, 1882), p. 51.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>3</sup> See also E. Channing, *A Few Remarks on the Origin of the England Town*, Mass. Hist. Soc., *Proceedings*, January, 1892, 2d Ser., VII, 242-63.

<sup>4</sup> S. R. Gardiner, *History of England*, VII, 258.

<sup>5</sup> *Accounts of Saint Michael Cornhill*, pp. 200-206.

<sup>6</sup> J. H. Matthews, *History of the Parishes of St. Ives, Lelant, Towednack and Zennor* (London, 1892), p. 146 (1573).

<sup>7</sup> Sir R. C. Hoare, *History of Wiltshire* (London, 1822), pp. 21, church-wardens' accounts of Mere; profit 1605, L 15 6 s.; 1606, L 20; 1607, L 23 6 s.; then disappears; *The Monthly Magazine or British Register*, 1810, pp. 458-62, *A Transcript of the Parish Expenditures of Milton—Abbot, for the year, 1588*, reprinted by Devonshire Association for the Advancement of Science, Literature, and Art, *Transactions*, XI, 213-55.



the parish had a "vicar" instead of a "rector," it was responsible for "delapidations," and entries for repairs are numerous.<sup>1</sup> It had a responsibility of declining importance, for equipping one or more soldiers,<sup>2</sup> and was often possessed of a ladder and other fire apparatus.<sup>3</sup> It sometimes engaged in agricultural pursuits,<sup>4</sup> though this custom was passing. It made occasional payments to charitable objects; "poor ministers," "souldiers," "Irishmen," "women," "children"; a "Turke being made Xian"; for the ransom of a sailor; for a merchant who had lost money by indorsements"; "to a man going to New England, 31" (1640); "to a poor man and his wife that came out of New England being in great want 158d." (1641-42); "to a gretian by the consent of Mr. Bendish"; "to a pore man that hadd the quanes brod selae y<sup>t</sup> did not gather in the church;" to the traveler the XVjij<sup>th</sup> day of May that was taken with Dunkerkes iiij<sup>d</sup>." The parish also dealt with certain kinds of discipline. At Halifax in 1620 trouble arose over a wife who insisted on sitting with her husband on the men's side.<sup>5</sup> In the same parish in 1623, a man was fined for unseemly speech in vestry.<sup>6</sup> At St. Margarets, Lothbury, in 1592, Mr. Cox was told to get rid of the woman who served him and of whom the vestry was suspicious.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Hall, *St. Alphage*, p. 31 (1609); Shropshire Archeological and Natural History Society, *Transactions*, II, 117; Rev. J. C. Cox, and W. H. St. J. Hope, *The Chronicles of the Collegiate Church or Free Chapel of All Saints, Derby* (London, 1881), p. 179.

<sup>2</sup> *Minutes of Vestry Meetings of Saint Christopher Le Stocks* (edited by Edwin Freshfield, London, 1886), p. 12 (1585), p. 21 (1600); also *Archeologia*, XXXVI, 234, extract from the churchwardens' accounts of the parish of Wing, Buckinghamshire (1560); and many other references.

<sup>3</sup> Cox and Hope, *All Saints, Derby*, p. 179 (1632): "A Ladder given by Mrs. Stringer widowe . . . being of firr and containing 36 staves," "j firre poule given by Mr. Luke Whittinge to the parish . . . that is made a hooke." "The mind of the donor is that this ladder should not be lent to any but upon occasion of fire. The cost 5s. 2d."; T. North, *St. Martins, Leicester*, p. 8 (1544-48): "for a ladder for the church, X j<sup>d</sup>."; 17 (1545-46), "Itm to j<sup>ijj</sup> m<sup>e</sup> for bryngenge the great leder"; *St. Christopher Le Stocks*, p. 44 (1609): mention of 4 ladders and 24 leathern bucketts; Shropshire Archeological and Natural History Society, *Transactions*, II, 112.

<sup>4</sup> See *Midland Antiquary*, I, 36, churchwardens' accounts of Badsey, Worcester, 1555: "It o'payyed for ye wy'tyng of ye bulle, Vj<sup>d</sup>."

<sup>5</sup> Hall, *Saint Alphage*, p. 31.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>7</sup> *Saint Margaret Lothbury*, XIII.

The income which the parish applied to these objects was derived from many sources: from the rent of property;<sup>1</sup> from such business enterprises as have been mentioned, as bread- and ale-making and agricultural undertakings; from fees, and from fines. It was becoming more customary, however, though it had long been a practice, to raise sums by a rate or tax levy. Thus in 1585 St. Christopher Le Stocks raised a rate for a suit for the soldier;<sup>2</sup> in 1601-2 the warden of St. Martins, Leicester, "received of the leavie that was made the XXVii<sup>th</sup> day of July to paye Certain debts that the p'ish was in Viiiil xs. v jd."<sup>3</sup> In 1654 the same parish agreed that the lands of the inhabitants be taxed "for setting the poor on work," "for the relief of the impotent," and for "putting forth apprentices."<sup>4</sup> This latter tax must not be confused with the regular poor rate which, after 1601, was imposed under national direction and did not pass through the hands of the parish organization we are considering.

This law of 1601, establishing in each parish a separate organization to take over a work so constant and so important as that of the relief of the poor, did much to preserve the importance of the parish as an administrative unit, but it was also doubtless one of the causes for the gradual atrophy of the popular elements in the older organization. It will be noticed that the activities of the regular parish authorities while numerous were becoming less important and of less popular interest than they had been. Few of its business enterprises survived far into the seventeenth century, and with the rise of Puritanism the church was becoming less and less a social center for the amusements of its people, and was tending to become more absorbed in its purely ecclesiastical duties and occasional charities. Enough memory of older activities remained to make a similar organization, reinforced as it was

<sup>1</sup> *Archeologia*, XXXV, 413, churchwardens' accounts of Minchinhampton, Gloucester; Historical MSS Commission (Great Britain), 3d Report, pp. 331-32; Shropshire Arch. and Nat. Hist. Soc., *Transactions*, II, 110; A. G. Legge, *Ancient Churchwardens Accounts in the Parish of North Elmham, from A.D. 1539 to A.D. 1577* (Norwich, 1891), pp. 9, 11.

<sup>2</sup> *Saint Christopher Le Stocks*, p. 12.

<sup>3</sup> North, *Saint Martins Leicester*, 144.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 205; see also Hobhouse, *Churchwardens Accounts*, XV.

by the analogy of the popular stock companies, seem familiar to the first New Englanders, who added to its duties those of the less popular manorial organization, and, under favoring geographical conditions, some of the functions of the more aristocratically governed counties. In England, however, the popular system of parish government seemed doomed alike by pressure from above and by lack of vital interest to hold the attention of the people. In this situation there remained one factor that might possibly have infused it with new life—the control of education.

The period of the rise of Protestantism was at least synchronous with an increasing interest in the education of the common people. Considering the close connection between Scotch Protestant thought and that of the founders of New England, it is not too far afield to observe the educational movements in that country. In 1560 the first book of discipline of the Reformed Church discussed the "necessitie of Schools"; every kirk should have one schoolmaster able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue "if the town be of any reputation"; "if it be upland" the reader or minister must "take care of the children and youth of the parish, to instruct them in the first rudiments," and the education of the poor was to be provided for.<sup>1</sup> In 1616 the Privy Council issued a decree that was ratified by Parliament in 1633, that the bishops, with the assent of the freeholders, might impose a local Cury for education. On December 17 and 18, 1638, four years before the famous Massachusetts law, the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland resolved: "Anent the planting of Schools in Landward, the want thereof doth greatly prejudice the growth of the Gospel, and procure the decay of Religion: the Assembly giveth direction to the several Presbyteries for the setting of Schools in every landward parochin, and providing of men able for the charge of teaching of the youth, publick reading and precenting of the Psalme, and catachising of the common people, and that means be provided for their entertainment, in the most convenient manner that may be had, according to the abilitie of the Parochin."<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Lord John Russell, *Letter on the Parochial Schools of Scotland* (London, 1854).

<sup>2</sup> The General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, *The Principal Acts*, Edinburgh, 1639.

This ideal was not recognized by the Scotch Parliament until 1696,<sup>1</sup> but it was a notable declaration of intention.

A "Project of the Plantation of Ulster" of 1606, in the Carew MSS, includes provision for a college at Dublin,<sup>2</sup> and some separate suggestions without date in the same hand run: "to plant husbandry, and every man that keeps 20 cows to keep a plough land, to plant artificers and markets, to plant schoolmasters in every parish for the first elements, in every country or borough for further learning of the sciences, and an ordinance for every noble and gentleman to put their children to learning.<sup>3</sup> James I wrote St. John, February 26, 1620 that, "a competent portion of land for the maintenance of free schools in every county" of Ulster was to be provided "before natives and undertakers."<sup>4</sup>

In England there was interest in education. In 1542 Bonner, bishop of London, enjoined "every of you that be parsons, vicars, curates, and also chantry priests and stipendiaries to . . . teach and bring up in learning the best ye can all such children of your parishioners as shall come to you, or at the least teach them to read English." In 1563, "all schoolmasters and public and private teachers of children," were required to take the oath of allegiance. All schoolmasters were expected to have licenses from their bishops. In 1597 parliamentary supervision was suggested in a bill "for establishing of good Orders in Grammar Schools," but it was rejected.<sup>5</sup> Nor did the leaders of centralization under Charles I overlook the subject. Strafford wrote on March 11, 1633, that "there are not many men, which deserve better or worse of the State than the Schoolmasters," and that severity was needed to

<sup>1</sup> Rev. W. W. Hetherington, *History of the Church of Scotland* (Edinburgh, 1842), p. 304; see also *Laws and Acts made in the Sixth Session of the First Parliament of William [III]*, October 9, 1696.

<sup>2</sup> Carew MSS, Brit. Mus., volume for 1606, pp. 13-22.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, volume for 1603-1624, pp. 452 ff.; see also *Calendar of State Papers, Irish Series*, 1603-6, p. 590; 1606-8, p. 286; 1611-14, pp. 296-97, 467-68; 1615-25, pp. 47, 200-201, 276, 306-12, 314, 346-47, 418-19, 501, 591.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, 1615-25, p. 276.

<sup>5</sup> D'Ewes, *Journal of the House of Commons*, December 11, 1597; also *Enc. Brit.*, XXIV (1911), 368-71.

turn out the inefficient.<sup>1</sup> For Ireland he proposed a commission on the subject.<sup>2</sup> On April 30, 1633, Laud wrote Strafford to send to London for trial Christopher Sands who taught an English school in Londonderry, "as he is a Jew and denies Christ."<sup>3</sup> In 1657 Laud reported to the king: "At Biddenden I have suspended Richard Warren y<sup>e</sup> School Master for refusing the Oath . . . . Besides this precise man will read of nothing but Divinity to his Schollars, noe not soe much as ye Grammar rules, unless Mars, Bacchus, Apollo, . . . . maybe blotted out."<sup>4</sup> Licenses and oaths, however, have never proved sufficient of themselves for the efficient control of a country-wide institution, and the bishops were too busy with other matters to follow up the schools. The purpose of both license and oath, moreover, was almost wholly to secure religious orthodoxy, and not to provide for education or to regulate its general content or method. The various rulers did something by the establishment of schools, but these were occasional and scattered benefits, and belong rather to the category of private benefactions than of governmental provisions. In fact neither Parliament nor the Crown devised any systematic organization for the general support or supervision of education. The task was left to the care of individuals and of local governing bodies.

How much private benefaction did toward a solution of the problem may be seen in the successive reports of the commissioners, whose appointment was provided for by Lord Brougham's bill of 1816: "to inquire concerning charities in England for the education of the Poor." These reports, continuing for twenty years and running to over thirty volumes,<sup>5</sup> are a constant illustration of the wonderful diversity of schemes which English individuality can devise when left to run wild, but they are equally impressive for revealing the multitude of the endowments founded in the

<sup>1</sup> Thomas, Earl of Strafford, *Letters and Dispatches* (W. Knowler, London, 1739), I, 212-14 (of Ireland); see also I, 188, January 31, 1633.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, I, 188, January 31, 1633.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, I, 82.

<sup>4</sup> Harlean MSS No. 787, Brit. Mus., f. 21.

<sup>5</sup> These reports give the history and existing conditions of every such charity, parish by parish, county by county. They are admitted as *prima facie* evidence by the Charitable Trusts Act of 1891.

sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries and the wide area that they covered. Particularly noticeable is the liberality of the great city companies of London, the Mercers, the Grocers, the Girdlers, the Brewers, the Cloth-workers, the Skinners, the Goldsmiths, the Merchant Tailors, all of which appear as founders of schools.

This stream of private munificence did not, however, serve of itself to meet the need. It was unequally distributed geographically, and it tended to multiply secondary, grammar, or Latin schools, rather than those for the elements.

Local responsibility still remained, and in many cases was stimulated by the gifts. In nearly every instance the parish was the unit to which its gift applied, or if more than one parish was to be benefited it was in a fixed proportion. In some instances, moreover, the endowment was the result of collective local effort,<sup>1</sup> that kind of extra-legal co-operation which had developed the local sense of responsibility in the case of the poor law, and so paved the way for the compulsory rating of 1601, and which has of recent years resulted in the grafting of so many new branches of expenditure upon the public purse.

More important, the administration of the gifts was often thrown upon the authorities of the parish. In 1560, the corporation of the grammar school of Sevenoaks, in Kent, consisted of "the Warden and Four assistants."<sup>2</sup> In 1616 the "Skinners" provided twenty pounds for a schoolmaster at Hackney, in Middlesex, to be appointed by the vicar, churchwardens, and twelve substantial householders.<sup>3</sup> In 1532 a free school was given for Horsham, in Sussex, to be managed by the executors, vicar, churchwardens, and "four of the most honest men in the parish indifferently chosen by the inhabitants."<sup>4</sup> In 1612 the Commis-

<sup>1</sup> For instance, at Godmanchester in 1561 the schoolroom was built by subscriptions (24 *Ed. Rept.* 1831, 96); at Southwark in 1571 "the inhabitants of the parish of St. Olave . . . had lately erected . . . one grammar school for younglings as well . . . the rich as the poor" (1 *Ed. Rept.* 1818, 207); at Dorchester, 1565-1618, townsmen built the schoolhouse, "inhabitants" by contributions repaired it, a citizen gave a dwelling for the schoolmaster, and a contribution at church supplied additional land (29 *Ed. Rept.* 1835; also *Enc. Brit.* [1911], XXIV, 372).

<sup>2</sup> 1 *Ed. Rept.* 1818, 140.

<sup>3</sup> 2 *Ed. Rept.* 1819.

<sup>4</sup> 2 *Ed. Rept.* 1819, 167; also 4 *Ed. Rept.* 1820, 239.



sion on Charitable Uses assigned certain funds "for the benefit of the poor and poor children of [Hanwell, Middlesex] . . . at the discretion of the feoffees and parish officers."<sup>1</sup> In 1637 the "Grocers" provided twelve pence a week each for poor children of Acton, Middlesex, to learn English, which was to be managed by the minister and churchwardens.<sup>2</sup>

In the case of elementary schools private initiative from economic motives was more important than that from charity alone. Though most schools were "free," this freedom meant merely that they were open without distinction to all who complied with their conditions. In practically all schools, high and low, fees were charged. In many of those which were endowed, to be sure, free instruction and sometimes maintenance was provided for a fixed number of "poor children," but from the greater proportion of pupils payment was exacted. These fees were sufficient in most of the more important parishes to induce schoolmasters to set up elementary schools, and in the smaller ones to console the vicar for undertaking the task. Sometimes a curate, or a clerk, or the vicar's reader served as schoolmaster. In such cases, however, as in the case of the endowed institution, the parish authorities very often became involved.

Here and there the school was a source of profit to the parish. The school was nearly always held in some parish building, and occasionally paid rent, as at Ashburton where, in 1573, the minister paid "Xs iii d for the occupation of the church house . . . for the keeping of scule there."<sup>3</sup> At Hempstead from 1599 to 1617 the "Schollmaster," or "scoolmayst and usher," "paid towards the Towllinge of the Schollers Bell."<sup>4</sup>

This was, however, exceptional, and the parish generally furnished the schoolroom free, and often at some expense to itself. In many cases the school was held in the church building. As late

<sup>1</sup> 2 *Ed. Rept.* 1819, 100.

<sup>2</sup> 9 *Ed. Rept.* 1823, 281.

<sup>3</sup> *The Parish of Ashburton in the 15th and 16th Centuries; as it appears from extracts from the Churchwardens accounts, A.D. (1479-1580)* (edited by J. H. Butcher, London, 1870), p. 45.

<sup>4</sup> *Church Accounts, Hempstead, Hertshire*, Brit. Mus. Add. MSS No. 18773; see also Leicestershire Architectural and Archeological Society, *Transactions*, III, 188 (1557-58).



as 1651 the churchwarden's accounts of Minchinhampton, in Gloucester, contain the item: "for stones and making the chimnie in the chansell for the scoole, 6 s. 3 d."<sup>1</sup> In 1593, the records of St. Margarets, Lothbury, read: "and att this vestry Mr Edwarde Rogers moved the parrishe to have his skollers in our Church and thare kepe his skoole in the hootte weather for the bettar keping of his said scollars in good order, which was granted him by order of this vestry, and to endewer so long as the parrishenors shall think good and y<sup>e</sup> the said scollars do kepe be kept in good order," Mr. Rogers to pay for breakage and for a "clark to clean the church."<sup>2</sup> The frequent bills for "glassing" indicate that such a provident arrangement was not always made.<sup>3</sup> Sometimes the school was held in the vicarage.<sup>4</sup> At Ashburton it was held in a chapel formerly used as a chantry;<sup>5</sup> at St. Michaels, Bishop, Stortford, apparently in a loft over the barley market.<sup>6</sup> The "dore where the scollers sit" opened in 1631 at St. Martins, Leicester,<sup>7</sup> was possibly for Sunday use only, as the schoolmaster was expected to bring them to the parish service.<sup>8</sup>

The convenience of a separate schoolhouse was, however, appreciated and by one means or another the parishes were gradually equipping themselves with them. Between 1500 and 1521 the churchwardens of Wigloft, in Lincoln, spent money for the improvement and repair of the schoolhouse, although they received

<sup>1</sup> *Archeologia*, XXXV, 446.

<sup>2</sup> *Saint Margaret Lothbury*, XVII.

<sup>3</sup> James Stockdale, *Annals Caermodesens* (Ulverston, 1872), p. 46, etc.

<sup>4</sup> Oxford Historical Society, *History of Kidlington, Yarnton and Begbroke*, p. 250 (time of Charles I).

<sup>5</sup> *Ashburton*, p. 39; see also 3 *Ed. Rept.* 1820, 182 (1644).

<sup>6</sup> J. S. Glasscock, *The Records of St. Michaels Parish Church, Bishop's Stortford* (London, 1882), pp. 40 (1531), 57 (1571), 58 (1578), 66 (1592); it seems possible that here the school was kept first by the "Scryvener" and then by the "clerk."

<sup>7</sup> John Nichols, *History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester* (London, 1782-1811), 1632; *St. Martins Leicester*, p. 183.

<sup>8</sup> *Articles of Inquirie, Given in charge by the Right Reverend Father in God, Henrie (Cotton) By the providence of Almighty God Bishop of Sarum, to be answered unto by way of presentment upon oath by the churchwardens and Sidesmen of each parish and chapel . . .* (London, 1614), item 51.

no rent for it.<sup>1</sup> In 1562 the borough of Alington, in Berkshire, in consideration of fifty pounds from John Royse, agreed to build a schoolhouse to be used forever as a free grammar school, the fabric to be maintained by them, and the schoolmaster to be chosen by the mayor and the principal burgesses.<sup>2</sup> In 1571 when certain inhabitants of Southwark erected a school in the parish of St. Olave, the land was purchased by the parishioners.<sup>3</sup> In 1573 the churchwardens of Yeovil, in Somercet, spent £12 13s. 4d. for making over a building which had been a chapel, into a schoolhouse.<sup>4</sup> In 1624 the inhabitants of Cartmel purchased a strong and convenient building of Mr. Preston for thirty pounds to be used as a public school, the school having formerly been in the church.<sup>5</sup> In 1624 a school costing one hundred pounds was erected in Holy Trinity Parish by the benevolence of the inhabitants of Dorchester, to be managed by the corporation.<sup>6</sup> In 1628 "the principal men, inhabitants of the said town" of Eversholt, in Dorset, promised, on receipt of an endowment to an elementary school in which poor pupils should be taught freely, to grant the use of the "town-house or church-house for the use of the school-house."<sup>7</sup> In 1632 Hempstead voted 10 s. "for making a new stile by the Schule-house."<sup>8</sup> At Eltham, the parish built a schoolhouse in 1635.<sup>9</sup> In the Hundred of Ishworth in the parish of Twickenham, Middlesex, there was in 1648 a schoolhouse which was kept in repair by the parish and used rent-free.<sup>10</sup> It seems in fact to have been regarded as primarily the duty of the local community to furnish the seat of learning while

<sup>1</sup> John Nichols, *Illustrations of the Manners and Expenses of Ancient Times in England* (London, 1797), extract from the churchwardens' accounts of Wigloft, Lincoln, pp. 197-212.

<sup>2</sup> 2 *Ed. Rept.* 1819, 5-11.

<sup>3</sup> 2 *Ed. Rept.* 1819, 207; see also 1 *Ed. Rept.* 1818, 97.

<sup>4</sup> 4 *Ed. Rept.* 1820, 325.

<sup>5</sup> Stockdale, *Annals Caemodenses*, p. 53.

<sup>6</sup> 2a, *Ed. Rept.* 1835, 15; see also *Cratfield: a transcript of the accounts of the parish, from 1490 to A.D. 1642* (notes by Rev. W. Holland, etc., edited by J. J. Raven), p. 152.

<sup>7</sup> 31 *Ed. Rept.* 1837, 170.

<sup>8</sup> *Churchwardens Accounts, Hampsted*, Brit. Mus. Add. MSS No. 18773.

<sup>9</sup> Rev. Daniel Lyons, *The Environs of London*, etc. (London, 1792), p. 417.

<sup>10</sup> 8 *Ed. Rept.* 1822, 395.

others provided the means. In 1598 a benefactor at Hingham, in Somerset, gave a sum for the encouragement of a schoolmaster "to instruct the poor children of the parish," and the parish provided the house.<sup>1</sup> In 1609 a similar arrangement was made at Lancton, Yorkshire.<sup>2</sup> At Uxbridge, in Middlesex, a bequest of twenty marks in 1570, on condition that the town erect within the year a schoolhouse and provide additional endowment, failed to produce action on the part of the town.<sup>3</sup>

The schoolhouse did not solve all problems. In 1640 the Commissioners of Charitable Uses found that no schoolmaster would undertake the teaching of poor children at Haskingfield, in Cambridgeshire, unless some certain allowance might be assured him;<sup>4</sup> and this was a condition that often existed. A second problem was that of poor children "whose parents were not able to breed them up to school by means of poverty," of whom we find record in almost every parish. Where private charity failed to provide for these emergencies, the joint responsibility was beginning here and there to be felt. St. Michael, Cornhill, in 1569, paid Robert Morcocke who taught "chyldeyrne" "for his hole yeres wages, xi s.," and "to the Clarke y<sup>e</sup> teacheth chyl dren, x s."<sup>5</sup> In 1561 at Cratfield, the "skollemaster was paid 40 s";<sup>6</sup> in 1578 he was paid "for ease of some pore menes chyl dren."<sup>7</sup> Smarden churchwardens in 1550 paid the schoolmaster 20 s., and in 1552 "fyrst paid to the Skollmaster ffor his wags which were promised to hym for teching of chylldrun," 20 s.; but this payment was discontinued after 1553, perhaps because of the great expense of securing church ornaments called for under the restoration of the Roman rite,<sup>8</sup> which occupies much space in the books of this and other parishes at the time. At Ashburton in 1561 "xiii s iiii d" were paid "to the master of the children in the chapell."<sup>9</sup> At Willingham, Cambridgeshire, in 1593, certain inhabitants of the

<sup>1</sup> 11 *Ed. Rept.* 1824, 489.

<sup>3</sup> 9 *Ed. Rept.* 1823, 218.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>4</sup> 31 *Ed. Rept.* 1837, 193.

<sup>5</sup> *Accounts of Saint Michael Cornhill*, pp. 66-77. Mr. Morcocke, however, paid rent for a chamber, pp. 80-103.

<sup>6</sup> *Cratfield*, pp. 92, 103.

<sup>7</sup> *Archeologia Cantiana*, IX, 228.

<sup>8</sup> *Ashburton*.

parish raised 158 pounds for a parochial school, to be managed by the parson and six men. Only children of contributors were to be admitted, but the contribution list was open, and exception was made in the care of poor children, who were to be freely taught.<sup>1</sup> In 1602 St. Bartholemews Exchange solved the difficulty in another way, by paying the "pettye schulemaster of Christs Hospital" for the instruction of poor children. At St. Mary Woolworth, in 1616, five shillings were paid to the "scole mistress."<sup>2</sup> In 1629 the "Bishop of Bristol granted permission for building the shops at the West end of the church of the Holy Trinity, Dorchester, "for the use of the poor for the training up of Children in the English tongue."<sup>3</sup> In 1636 such expenses ran to over twenty pounds.<sup>4</sup> In 1636 the churchwardens and the twenty-four at Cartmel ordered "that Christopher Barrow come to teach school at the ancient wages"; in 1655 and 1657, that the schoolmasters have the register's place, in all 20 pounds, or if he need an usher, the latter was to be register, and the schoolmaster's salary was to be made up by payments assessed by the twenty-four.<sup>5</sup>

Less important, but still showing an interest in education on the part of the parish, are such items as the following: at Leverton in 1565, 2 shillings were given "to a pore Scoller of Oxford that had a lysence in the way of exhibition ii s.";<sup>6</sup> in 1572 "to a pore scholar of Tattesall vj d"; "to a poor scholar of Oxford iii s iii d." In 1595 the churchwardens of St. Margarets, Westminster, gave "John Crevenne, alias Lute, a poor skolar born in this parish, after a sermon by him made in this church, by consent of such of the vestry as were present at that sermon," one pound.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>1</sup> 31 *Ed. Rept.* 1837, 259.

<sup>2</sup> *Saint Mary Woolworth*, XXXI; schoolmistresses were buried in 1612 and 1625, pp. 218, 214.

<sup>3</sup> 29 *Ed. Rept.* 1835, 15.

<sup>4</sup> *The Account Books of the Parish of Saint Bartholemew Exchange* (edited by Edwin Freshfield, London, 1897), pp. 20, 35, 105.

<sup>5</sup> James, Stockdale, *Annals Caermoelesens*, pp. 58, 60, 63, 85, 86.

<sup>6</sup> *Archeologia*, XII, 363.

<sup>7</sup> *Ashburton*, pp. 42, 49.

<sup>8</sup> Nichols, *Illustrations of Manners*, p. 24.

In the absence of national control, it is apparent that there was no such thing as a system of educational support in England at the time of the American migration. Secondary schools were sustained in larger measure by endowment than by any other means. Elementary schools were primarily dependent upon the scholars' fees. This individual effort was supplemented, however, by the various local authorities, the borough,<sup>1</sup> the towns (sometimes separate from, sometimes identical with, the parish),<sup>2</sup> the lord of the manor,<sup>3</sup> the overseers of the poor,<sup>4</sup> the justices,<sup>5</sup> and the authorities, officers, or inhabitants of the parish, as well as by private corporations such as the great London companies. This complication of support was balanced by a similar complication in control. It was the parish, however, which was most frequently and closely connected with elementary education. If the fees were not sufficient to encourage a schoolmaster to settle, the vicar, the curate, the clerk, or some other officer was on the spot, mainly supported by his other occupation, to fill the gap in return for a sum which, if not sufficient to live upon, was not unwelcome as an addition to his income. Doubtless many vicars received the parish poor children without fee. The school was nearly always in a parish building, and the responsibility for providing a meeting-place for it was generally recognized as a parish duty.

Probably the statesmen of England were correct in judging that the sense of community responsibility for the education of the poor

<sup>1</sup> See 31 *Ed. Rept.* 1837, Town of Wisbeck (Edward VI); also 2d *Ed. Rept.* 1835, 15.

<sup>2</sup> Terms sometimes used interchangeably, as limits were generally coterminous, though more than one parish might lie in a town or vice versa, but the "town of Maidenhead lies in the parishes of Bray and Cookham" (1 *Ed. Rept.* 1819, 84).

<sup>3</sup> At Stanwell Middlesex, the lord of the manor appointed the schoolmaster (9 *Ed. Rept.* 1823, 318 [1622]).

<sup>4</sup> In 1628, at Dorchester, "It is agreed that henceforth there shall be paid to the school-master of the said new school [founded in Holy Trinity Parish] 12d, every quarter for every poor child of the three parishes of this borough that shall be placed at school with him by the overseers of the poor . . . to be paid by the overseers every one of them for the poor of their own parish" (29 *Ed. Rept.* 1835, 15).

<sup>5</sup> At Edmonton, Middlesex, in 1606, an endowment was left "for freeing the scholars of so many poor boys, as the justices and churchwardens, with the overseers of the poor, shall agree for with the school-master" (9 *Ed. Rept.* 1823 [1606]).

was not as highly developed as that for their support, and that public opinion would not uphold such a plan for national compulsion as that involved in the poor law of 1601. In part this was due to the fact that the needs of the situation, as far as the more powerful elements in the population were concerned, seemed fairly well met. In most parishes the scholars' bell summoned the children of all who could pay to the daily lesson; in a large number of them it summoned also all children whom their parents judged could be spared from home, whose tuition was provided for by reason of old endowments or by special charity or by parochial care.

It is apart from the purpose of the article to point out the connection of such plans as that for the reservation of lands in Ulster with the similar early and continued practice in the United States, or of the corporate generosity of the London merchants with that of the early colonizing companies. More significant and more important are the signs of a dawning consciousness of community responsibility. It is evident that though public opinion was not ready, under English conditions, to assume the burden of granting universal opportunity by a national system of compulsory support, much less that of making the acceptance of this opportunity itself compulsory, nevertheless the feeling was developing that, in the absence of other means, the local unit was responsible for providing the opportunity by its own initiative and that the unit upon which this responsibility logically rested was that of which the control was most responsive to the popular will, the parish. Nor was there any objection to this on the ground of confusing secular and religious functions. The idea of free education in cases of necessity, was in the air, but not that of separation of church and state.<sup>4</sup>

It did not, therefore, seem strange to the inhabitants of the more vigorous daughter of the parish, the New England town, that in a country where private endowments could not be counted upon, and where public land endowments brought in little or no return, the town should be required to see to it that a schoolhouse be provided, a schoolmaster encouraged to engage in the work, and the children of the poor be educated at town expense.

<sup>4</sup> Note also the importance of the cathedral and other choir schools; see *Documents Illustrating Early Education in Worcester, 685 to 1700* (edited by A. F. Leach), Worcester Historical Society, 1913.

## IS CREDIT FOR QUALITY SOUND?

W. C. RUEDIGER  
George Washington University

The article by Merritt L. Hoblit entitled, "The High-School Unit: Quantity, Quality, and Credit," in the May, 1915, number of the *School Review* brings forward again the question of credit for quality. Mr. Hoblit says:

Let there be a qualitative valuation of the student's work, expressed by five grades—A, B, C, D, E. Those obtaining grade A are given a credit toward graduation of 100 points for a five-hour course extending through a half-year, and proportionally less for shorter courses. Those obtaining B are credited with 90 per cent of the maximum quantitative value of the course; those obtaining grade C, with 80 per cent; those obtaining grade D, with 70 per cent; those obtaining grade E, with failure.

If this procedure is sound, why stop at D with 70 per cent? Why not go to 50, 60, 40, and down to 10 or 1 per cent? Would not each student who attended the class have gained something? What does or should a credit toward graduation mean, anyway? Especially, is it logically and educationally sound to grant quantitative credit for qualitative achievement?

In reference to the last question at least four answers in the negative occur to my mind.

It should be noticed in the first place that quantity and quality in school work are disparate; they cannot logically be interchanged. There is no inherent reason why they should vary concomitantly and always in the same direction. Each must be measured by itself and from the measure of one nothing can be safely inferred in respect to the measure of the other. Two students who have completed the same course in physics, for example, one with a grade of A and the other with C, may have a knowledge of precisely the same things, the difference lying entirely in the grasp upon this knowledge.

Nor can it be assumed that the bright pupil usually reads more widely than the other. Often, indeed, the seeming brightness of



the one is at least partly due to the fact that he confines himself strictly to the text and required reading while the other ventures liberally beyond. I have noticed this again and again. As an extreme example, I was recently surprised to find that one of my barely passing students in psychology was reading the whole of James's two-volume work alongside of the course, and claimed to be enjoying it, while a little questioning revealed the fact that some of the A and B students were doing nothing beyond the required work.

Secondly, it is a mistake to assume that we are not now giving credit for quality. The differentiation of marks into A, B, C, etc., symbolizes such credit. The significance of this differentiation of marks goes far beyond "empty honor," as this is termed in the catalogue of the University of Missouri (1913, p. 91). It is the main basis on which the selective function of education is realized. Other things being equal, it is the good student who is encouraged by awards of scholarships and fellowships, who is promoted into the faculty, and who is recommended more highly for available positions. High marks, distinctions, and the like are in themselves recommendations and are obviously more likely to open the opportunity for achieving tangible returns than the lack of them. In this manner good work in school leads ultimately to financial rewards just as good work does outside of school. An unrelated bonus, such as quantitative credit for quality constitutes, is not normally found outside of school.

But leaving tangible returns aside, is it even then fair to speak of honor as being empty? Isn't the satisfaction of standing well with one's parents, relatives, and friends, and of having them take pleasure in one's work worth something, subjectively considered? The actions of mankind leave no doubt upon the answer to this question.

If it is true, as it seems to be, that good work in school, as symbolized by high marks, is now given the credit that is economically, socially, and psychologically natural to it, it must follow that credit for quality gives a second and unnatural credit for the same thing. That is, in the scheme of credit for quality, credit is given twice for the same thing.

This unnatural credit, in the third place, introduces a vicious artificial incentive, as every other overemphasis of marks does in a measure. A mark is a symbol merely and cannot safely be allowed to stand for more than it symbolizes—quality of work. As soon as it is allowed to stand for more than that—for prizes, distinctions, extra credit—it shifts the attention to itself, away from the work, with a corresponding detriment to the genuine appreciation of the content of the work. The low ideals of scholarship that this engenders, the faulty methods of study that it introduces, the unwise selection of courses that it encourages, and the unwholesome pressure that it brings to bear upon the faculty, are well discussed by A. J. Ladd in the *Educational Review*, March, 1909.<sup>1</sup>

The fourth objection to credit for quality is the most serious of all. Such credit varies the educational content covered by the different students, and yet this variable content is indicated by the same diploma or degree.

The way this variation comes about may best be made clear by an example. Suppose that in a certain school there is a range in the variation of credit for quality so that a bright student could gain an average of 1.2 units of credit for each class-unit pursued, the medium student 1 unit, and the dull student 0.8 unit, and suppose that 60 units are required for graduation. The number of class-units that each of these students would actually have to take for graduation is found by dividing 60 respectively by 1.2, 1, and 0.8. This gives us 50, 60, and 75. That is, the dull student would actually have covered 50 per cent more ground than the bright student. Nor is this overdrawn. Indeed, some of the schemes proposed would allow a range of variation much greater than this.

According to the variation here indicated, the bright student would be 10 points short of the usual number of year-hours now required for graduation from college. Suppose this shortage had caused him to miss such studies as sociology, geology, astronomy, biblical literature, and the problems and history of philosophy. Would he be at all likely to make up this shortage, once he was out taking part in the world of affairs? Ten year-hours would have

<sup>1</sup> Ladd's complete discussion occurs in the *Western Journal of Education*, May, 1909.

enabled him to cover the fundamentals of at least three or four of these studies. Or if 50 year-hours are sufficient for general collegiate culture, why not reduce the college course to this minimum for all?

To test further the practical effect of this variation in educational extent introduced by credit for quality, let us attempt to apply it in an engineering school. Could it in fact be applied? Does not virtually every course in the curriculum of an engineering school have so specific an educational function to discharge that it could not be omitted without crippling the student? And is not the same thing essentially true of medical schools, dental schools, law schools, and other professional schools? And should it not be true of general culture schools?

With the passing of the old conception of mental discipline the primary emphasis in education has shifted from form or discipline to content. The primary function of general education is now regarded as being to equip the learner with a certain range of knowledge, ideals, and skill, objectively considered, that a certain stage of social participation, according to the collective wisdom of race, requires. It is, or should be, in its fundamentals, just about as definite a thing as preparation for a profession. That this is now not always so, is but an indication of our undeveloped educational theory and practice, from the standpoint of social and general vocational needs. When once it is recognized that elementary education has a definite function to perform, when it is recognized that the several cycles of general education each has a relatively clear-cut range of knowledge, ideals, and powers to develop, there will no longer be any room for this peculiar aberration known as credit for quality.

The advantages sought by the advocates of credit for quality are in the main three. They are (1) shortening the course for the abler students; (2) requiring compensatory tasks of students below the average; and (3) incentive for study.

That students should, within the range of pedagogical possibilities, be allowed to proceed at rates consonant with their different abilities is no doubt valid, but this is now being achieved without the assistance of credit for quality. Able students are

finishing both our high schools and our colleges in less than four years; occasionally, with a little work in the summer, in three years. A genuinely able student will carry eighteen or twenty hours a week just as efficiently as fifteen, often more so, and this method does not tempt him to omit any of the social inheritance to which he is entitled.

To require extra or supplementary work of dull students is no doubt also valid. But this work should be so assigned that it will reinforce specific weaknesses. This the scheme of credit for quality does not do. A student may get a low mark in English composition and compensate for it by taking work in a quite unrelated field, such as mathematics.

The correct method is illustrated by Harvard University in the course in Freshman English. All Freshmen who do not attain at least a grade of C are required to complete an additional half-course in English composition during the Sophomore year before credit in Freshman English is assigned. For the half-course taken in the Sophomore year no additional credit is given.

Instead of letting a doubtful student pass, or through failure require him to take the course over, let him take a supplementary course. Keep him working in the field until he has attained the standard of efficiency that may be justly demanded. This principle, while it involves administrative difficulties, may be extended indefinitely. It bears no relation to credit for quality, however.

The prodding effect of credit for quality was disposed of when it was classed as a vicious artificial incentive. While artificial incentives may have legitimate occasional use, they cannot be justified as a permanent thing. The trouble with too many high-school and college teachers is that they have no consistent grasp of educational theory, including the theory of motivation, and they are therefore unable to bring student and subject vitally together. The remedy need not be detailed.

## THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

HOWARD T. LEWIS  
University of Idaho

The ends and functions of education have been variously classified by writers according to the particular object which they have had in view, and it cannot be said that any one of these classifications is right to the exclusion of the others. Underlying all of them, however, and serving as a basis for all others, is the old, always assumed, division into economic, or vocational, and cultural, or liberal. Under the former is included all forms of vocational and professional training of whatever nature. The object is to render the individual a proficient, productive unit in society, not only for society's sake, but for the sake of the individual as well. The second function—cultural—is not primarily for the sake of enabling the individual to earn a livelihood, though it may contribute toward that end in an indirect way, but it is rather to acquaint him with the fields of human endeavor that tend to develop his aesthetic and moral nature.

Political and sociological training is ordinarily included under the second of these heads. In a very real sense, however, it may be separated from the cultural subjects and made a co-ordinate third factor, for the reason that while such training may not at all times properly be said to contribute to one's economic well-being, yet neither does it have as its object merely the broadening of one's interest. The aim of such educational effort is to fit the future citizen for the part which he will (or should) subsequently have to fill as a political unit in society, whereas the cultural phase has to do rather with the development of one's social nature—the teaching him to mingle with other men, to work with them, and to enjoy their intercourse, written or spoken. In other words, there are good grounds for making the ends of education three—vocational, political (including the sociological), and cultural; and any educational system that fails to perform all three of these in form adapted

to the particular student in question fails to perform the function for which it was created.

Such being the case, any undue emphasis placed upon any one of these phases can but result in lessened efficiency. And it is because we have, unconsciously perhaps, but none the less truly, tended to overemphasize some phases to the neglect of others, that the teaching profession has laid itself open to attack on the part of unfriendly critics. Each aspect has its inherent value, but when it comes to striking a balance between them, undue prominence has too often been accorded the newer factor, to the neglect of the older, but equally important one.

Two of these aspects have long been under discussion, and an adjustment between them is in sight. The cultural or liberal training is, of course, the older, historically, and perhaps is still the more firmly rooted. With the tremendous economic progress that has been accomplished within the past hundred years, however, and the recognition of the need of education for the masses as well as for the classes, the vocational aspect is at last coming into its own. It should be noted particularly that this industrial training is assuming its rightful place in *secondary* education, provision being made for it, indeed, even for those unable to continue their attendance in the regular secondary schools.

But the third phase of education is still far from receiving its due consideration. The other phases have been duly emphasized, but so far as acquainting a student with the real nature of the political institutions that we expect him to support, or insisting upon the importance of keeping abreast of current events, or suggesting the nature of the great social questions with which the state itself is being forced to cope more and more, our secondary schools do little indeed. Few graduates of our high schools have any but the haziest of notions, and these full of error, regarding the political world about them; while their ideas of the economic institutions of society are scanty and warped out of all proportion through lack of proper perspective, and still fewer graduates have any conception of the larger social problems of the day.

The theory of the case is clear. One has but to give the situation a moment's thought to recognize the increasing importance of



this training. Every month it is suggested that we transfer to the state some function hitherto left to private initiative. The government is constantly asked to regulate and supervise new fields of enterprise. Monopoly and competition alike are controlled by government commissions. It is neither to condemn nor to defend this tendency that attention is called to it, but solely to urge that adequate performance of these functions implies previous training and thought.

The significance of the whole matter becomes more apparent when we bear in mind that the settlement of many of these questions is being forced directly back upon the people. Direct election, initiative and referendum, and recall have taken the place, in a measure, of representative government. At every election people are called upon to settle political, economic, and social questions of the widest significance.

It is axiomatic that if five-sixths of our children do not complete the high school, and if they are forced to settle such questions as these, some attention of more than superficial nature must be given to this phase of their education. *Culture avails one nothing when anarchy prevails, and technical or industrial training is useless when hasty or unwise laws deaden industry.* The conclusion, in theory at least, is inevitable—that any educational system which does not give students some conception of the social and political forces of the world about them does not fulfil its proper function.

The theory of the case is thus clear. None can deny the need of such training nor that the training should be thorough and begun early. But what are the facts? Civics is probably taught, in some form or other, in practically every high school in the United States. But, with this much granted, there are two things to be borne in mind. One is that in most of the schools it is an elective. With our insane desire to fill up our high-school curriculum with as many electives as possible, and a seeming desire not to force any student to take any study that he does not wish (unless, as one superintendent conceded, "it be English"), a very large proportion of our students never take civics at all. English we force them to take; in most places, fortunately, we also compel students to take ancient and modern history; vocational work we rather expect to be taken;



but for this great, tremendously significant responsibility which the future citizen cannot well shirk, and for the attempted avoidance of which we unsparingly denounce him, we make little or no provision at all.

As President George Gunton has so well said:

At present, for the great army of youths who go from the public schools to the workshop, there is no mental preparation for intelligent dealing with these subjects. They are left to jostle against their fellows in the workshop, to hear and feel the causes for discontent; they read the inflammatory and sensational stuff in the newspapers, listen to more or less acrimonious discussion of social questions in their shop meetings and organizations; and all without the slightest background of educational preparation for forming rational judgments. The only natural result is that their decisions are made up from feelings and prejudices created by their economic environment.<sup>1</sup>

No wonder, then, that the politician of the lower type can dominate our political life; that public opinion is unable to settle upon any course of action and compel results; and that there are many intelligent men within our own land who urge, more or less under their breath but none the less strongly, that popular government is a failure. The present writer is interested in testing, every little while, the knowledge of his students upon currents, or on things so common that one takes it for granted that everyone knows them. The last such test, given to a class of sixteen college Juniors and Seniors, yielded results not widely variant in any sense from those of previous tests, and the result is given in this place simply because it is typical. If any reader believes this result to be out of the ordinary, let him try the same questions upon his own students.

What are the qualifications of a voter in this state [Idaho]? [3 correct answers.]

When will the next election be held in Idaho? [8]

Name the candidates for the United States Senate on the three leading tickets. [1]

Why has Congress found it necessary to pass a war revenue bill? [4]

Name one amendment to the constitution of the state of Idaho, to be voted on at the next election. [0]

Name four measures passed at the present sitting of Congress (the longest in our history) other than the tariff measure. [2]

On what date does President Wilson's term expire? [4]

How long will it be before ships will be allowed to pass through the Panama Canal? [10]

<sup>1</sup> *National Education Association Proceedings*, 1901, p. 133.

Who is the president of France? [9]

Who is the present pope? [1]

What are the fundamental principles of the Progressive and Socialist tickets? [0]

The writer has repeatedly given tests similar to this, in a Kansas normal school, in an Ohio college, and in the University of Idaho; the results are nearly always the same.

That there are many students of secondary and collegiate rank who are able to give intelligent answers to such questions as these is not to be doubted for a moment. There are also institutions which take justified pride in the economic and social training that is given the students. There are high schools that turn out students strong in this respect, who know something of government in the United States, both constitutional and otherwise, and who make it a point to keep abreast of the times. Some students get and maintain an interest in politico-economic questions early in life. But most men and women gain such active interest as they ultimately do get only when they are later, in active life, brought face to face with the problem of seeking a solution to the difficulties at their very doors. We complain sometimes because the people do not take a greater interest in national and state problems, yet so far as the educational system is concerned we make little effort to arouse the consciousness of these problems early enough to be of much avail. There are two chief reasons for this. One is that the teachers themselves are open to wide and serious criticism, owing to their lack of knowledge along these lines. *Their* training was likewise at fault. They are often not familiar with the facts nor do they appear to appreciate their value to students in a plastic condition. This is true, not only of the actual teachers themselves, but, so far as the latter half of the criticism is concerned, the same thing is true of principals and superintendents. They urge lack of time as an excuse, but it is noteworthy that they have time for everything else, and in any event, in spite of the general feeling to the contrary, teachers are very far from being the overworked class that we have deluded ourselves—and others—into thinking we are.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See an article by the writer, "Social Survey in Rural Education," *Educational Review*, October, 1914.

The second difficulty arises from the fact that, owing in part to the foregoing, the textbooks are not satisfactory oftentimes, and even where they are satisfactory, teachers religiously hold to them as things to be memorized. As a matter of fact, any text on government, however good, becomes antiquated, in a degree, almost immediately upon publication. To teach subjects of this kind without newspapers and magazines and to do it efficiently is an absolute impossibility. Such weeklies as the *Literary Digest* are excellent for their help in this line, and though the use of such papers is becoming more general, it is still very unsatisfactory. The present writer has, for a number of years, been compelled to fall back upon the expedient of requiring such reading as rigorously as the work in the text itself, and of grading quite as thoroughly upon the student's acquaintance with such reading, under all circumstances, as upon any assigned book work. Students, even of university rank, under their present training, cannot be relied upon to do this reading unless required to do so. Perhaps, indeed, they never will voluntarily do much serious reading.

So much for civic training. Let us turn to the other aspect of the question—that of training in social and economic questions. Courses along these lines have yet to find their true place in our educational system. It is not that courses in technical economics or in the principles of sociology are, or should be, required. But it does seem reasonable that students in secondary schools should know that there are problems of unemployment, of transportation, of housing, and of unionism. As has already been suggested, men and women are now finding themselves in a position where they are asked to pass upon questions of this nature, and their decisions have the widest influence. Yet little, indeed, is done along this line. Only 2 per cent of the high-school students of Idaho take courses in direct economic training.<sup>1</sup> Courses in high-school economics are given in many states, but they are not effective, and for the same reasons that the teaching of civics is not effective.

<sup>1</sup> Eighty-eight out of an enrolment of 7,400. Haynes in his *Economics in the Secondary Schools* (Houghton Mifflin Co.) estimates that one-fifth of the high schools in the United States, and 36 per cent of the high-school students, chiefly of Senior rank, take the subject. About one-third of the schools evidently require it through commercial courses.

"But," someone urges, "it is not enough that we look at the student; we should note the actual results. The present training is as good, on the whole, as it has been in times past; and we have not suffered unduly—in fact, we are progressing all the time." It can scarcely be said, however, that this reply is satisfactory. Progress there has been, it is true, but one might almost be tempted to say that this is inevitable, to a degree, where men are sincerely working for human uplift. Men may have stumbled upon success, and mistakes have been too numerous. It should be noted, moreover, that our problems are becoming more and more complex and difficult every year, because the conditions are becoming more complex and intricate and men's relations broader. Success in the future is going to be harder to attain. Again, as has been noted, we are constantly being asked to pass directly upon questions that we could at one time refer to our representatives and hold them responsible. Perhaps, indeed, our effort to secure direct legislation is a confession of our failure in the past. If it be said that more people are thinking about these things than ever before, it may be replied that they have been forced to a position where further avoidance of facing the responsibility has become out of the question. It should be noted, too, that even in this day, when we point with some pride to the larger interest which is being manifested in these problems, the majority of people are still "on the outside." To take a single illustration: when the state of Ohio was passing upon the provisions in her new constitution in 1912, the vote cast on these most important of all political questions ran from only 15 per cent to less than 50 per cent of the possible vote. Does this indicate an overwhelming interest in matters of this nature? It may be that it indicates, rather, a recognition of the inability of citizens to pass upon these problems and an effort to avoid the responsibility, though it is readily admitted that this is by no means the full explanation. Yet the vast number of fruitless discussions and senseless arguments that we constantly hear on civic and social questions are in themselves indications of men's inability to deal adequately with these matters, and at the same time it bears out the assertion that men are wanting to know and would contribute were they given a chance. With the increasing complexity of our

life, the ill-informed, untrained man in the judging of economic and social questions becomes a daily increasing menace. The real leaders are ordinarily college men and women—those who have had the advantage of thorough training in matters social and political.

Or, if the optimist still be insistent that we judge by results, let us use another standard.

In its recent report, the United States Commission that is investigating industrial discontent notes and deplores a growing spirit of disregard for authority and law and increasing lack of respect for the courts; and this spirit it finds alike among the employers and the employed.

In his inaugural address Governor Charles S. Whitman of New York corroborates that finding. Disregard of law, the governor declared, impatience with legal and moral restraints, contempt for the judicial and executive ministers of justice, are phenomena observable in all American communities and all classes.<sup>1</sup>

And because our educational system produces good engineers or doctors, it does not follow that these men are able to cope with social questions. Measured by whatever standard we choose, the result shows a lamentable lack of knowledge and preparedness to meet the situation. "Soundness of society and civilization," we say, "rest upon education." We weaken it, then, at our peril.

The question, therefore, presents itself: What is being done, and what may be done to improve this lamentable situation? Three lines of activity are suggested, none of them wholly new, yet all of them capable of tremendous development. They can merely be suggested in this article.

The first is that the teaching of civics needs to be thoroughly revised. The text needs to be carefully selected, for "any text summarizing the federal and state constitutions" will not do. In the first place, the content of the constitution may be presented in ways either good or bad, and with varying emphasis. In the next place, the constitution, and even the statutory additions to our law, are far from explaining our governmental institutions.

But the good textbook on government is not sufficient. A more or less extensive and compulsory use of magazines and newspapers should be insisted upon. Repeated and thorough visits to courts,

<sup>1</sup> Editorial in *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane, Washington), January 3, 1915.

council meetings, and the like should be made.<sup>1</sup> Sample naturalization blanks, applications for passports, warrants for arrest, subpoenas, and similar documents can be secured with practically no effort, and should be used freely. It is amazing how much genuine interest is created in this way, and how much more real the work becomes.

The second suggestion is the introduction of a required course in social science. The criticism of a plan calling for the introduction of new courses is always based upon the plea that we already have too many, and that proper emphasis upon the old ones is good enough. The same argument was met with upon the introduction of the kindergartens and the manual-training courses, but both have come to stay. Attention is called to the fact that it is not economics or sociology, as such, that is called for. These are too technical branches of human knowledge to have any great place in the secondary schools. It is chiefly because of this misdirected effort that the science of economics has not been more widely adopted and retained than has been the case. A course in social science, however, need not be over-technical, and yet can be made to serve as an introduction to further study in a most admirable way. And if it be charged that such a course should not be allowed to precede the work that is commonly known as elementary economics or principles of sociology, it can be replied that logically the statement is true, yet in the interests of the greater number and under the stress of all of the circumstances, the strict logic may be allowed to give way before the greater need of service. The chief trouble here arises from the lack of a satisfactory text covering just the right ground and adapted to the secondary schools. The difficulty can be met, however, by a careful selection of a combination of texts to meet the present need, or until a satisfactory text does appear. Ellwood's volume entitled *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*, for example, might well serve as the basis of the work. The course should be planned to cover not less than a semester—a year is preferable. The same thing is true of the course in civics.

<sup>1</sup> Visits of this nature need to be carefully planned and conducted and not taken "any old time." The writer has seen, within six months, a class of some size file into a court in active session, accompanied by the teacher, remain less than five minutes, and then file out again. Such visits do little or no good.



A part of one semester is not enough even to introduce a subject of this nature.

The third line of endeavor is one that is already being carried out to a degree. I refer to the correlation of the various parts of the curriculum. "The plea that I have to make, then," wrote President Vincent, of the University of Minnesota, upon one occasion, "is not a plea for anthropology in the second grades, nor a demand for sociology in the high school, but an urgent appeal for the unifying of the curriculum by social philosophy, concealed in the lower stages from the pupils, but clearly present in the mind of the teacher." Suppose that in history a little less emphasis should be laid upon what has been as a thing in itself and a little more emphasis put upon what *has been in relation to what is*; that the mere routine giving of facts be emphasized less, and a little more attention be given to the interpretation of the social and economic force underlying those facts, and to current events. Surely then the student would find his work both more interesting and more valuable. In literature, again, suppose that when some character comes into conflict with a social institution—and by far the greater part of our great masterpieces originate through just some such action—instead of confining attention to the beauty of the wording or to the study of the costumes, or to the inner workings of the mind of the character, a broader view be taken, not to the neglect, surely, of these other things, but in conjunction with them. One can scarcely deny, I think, that such a grouping of facts would make the student infinitely more capable of meeting the social questions which he has to meet when he goes into the world. And turn about is fair play. When in civics or history the student turns in poorly spelled work or poorly constructed sentences and paragraphs, it would seem to be proper that attention be given to this fact. One may reply that this is done now. In many instances, yes. But within the last year the writer has heard many a teacher say that if the student gets the particular work in a subject, that is satisfactory. "So long as he thinks right and has the facts for which I am responsible, that is all I care," is a statement made to me recently, by a school man very advanced in most ways. Yet, clearly, he was in the wrong.

## THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN CALIFORNIA

A. A. GRAY  
Berkeley, California

The term "junior college" is applied to the work of the first and second years of the college or university. The junior college idea is not new in California, nor is it an educational idea of the Far West, as some are wont to think. College work in high schools seems to have appeared first among the high schools of Michigan and Minnesota. More than twenty years ago the East Side High School of Saginaw, Michigan, offered Freshman college work in Latin, algebra, trigonometry, paragraph-writing, and English history to graduates of its four-year course of study. By 1897 eight students had graduated from the University of Michigan in three years after doing a year's work beyond the four-year high-school course of study in the East Side High School. College work in high schools in California did not appear until more than a decade after such work had been introduced in many of the high schools of the East and Middle West.

New educational measures always require leadership to initiate them and to keep them constantly before the people. In this respect California was and is particularly indebted to the superior leadership of a few who believed firmly in the value and necessity of such an educational program as is found in the junior college. To them must be attributed the early establishment and much of the present success of the junior college in California.

The dominant leader of this new educational idea in California from its very first conception has been Dr. A. F. Lange, dean of the School of Education in the University of California. He has foreseen the future educational needs of California, as has perhaps no other person, and has always urged the extension of the high-school course of study so as to cover the entire adolescent period of life. Commenting upon our traditional four-year course of study in the

high school that begins too late and ends too early in the life of the pupil, he says: "The result is a trunkated and ineffectual, a non-functioning education, for most high-school graduates. A remedial readjustment, it has been seen for a long time, must consist in the lengthening, for all concerned, of the courses for adolescents."

Through the ready and able pen and the forceful addresses of Dr. David Starr Jordan the idea of the junior college found an earnest and a most dynamic advocate. While the six-year high school had long been anticipated in California, it was President Jordan who created and popularized the term "junior college" as applying to the first two years of college work as done in the high schools. The strong support of this noted educator added great momentum to the new movement in the state.

The junior college in California is the direct result of a law passed by the state legislature in March, 1907. This law provides: "The board of trustees of any city, district, union, joint union, or county high school may prescribe postgraduate courses of study for the graduates of such high school or other high schools, which course of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses."

The first town to take advantage of this provision of the law permitting the establishment of junior colleges was Fresno. In June, 1910, Superintendent C. L. McLane of the Fresno public schools sent out a circular letter to all the patrons of the Fresno High School and to several principals of the near-by towns, setting forth the aims of the proposed junior college, and requesting a judgment regarding the wisdom of such a plan. There was not one objection to the starting of the college, though more than 200 letters were sent in in reply to the circular letter. The following September the Fresno Junior College was opened and enrolled for the first year twenty students. This college enrolled in March, 1915, seventy-eight. The second junior college was started in the Santa Barbara High School in September, 1911, and since that time the introduction of college work in high schools has rapidly increased. At present more than a dozen high schools of the state are offering two years of advanced work equal to that of the first two years of the state university.

Table I, based on information gathered March 1, 1915, will show the enrolment for the last two years and other facts about five of the first junior colleges organized. The number of graduates

TABLE I

| DATE OF<br>START-<br>ING | LOCATION      | ENROLMENT |           |          |           | TOTAL ENROLMENT<br>SINCE STARTING | TOTAL NO. OF<br>GRADUATES | STUDENTS NOT GRAD-<br>UATING WHO ARE IN<br>OTHER COLLEGES | GRADUATES IN OTHER<br>COLLEGES | NO. OF TEACHERS<br>EMPLOYED IN<br>COLLEGE | HIGH-SCHOOL<br>ENROLMENT |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---|--------------------------|
|                          |               | 1913-14   |           | 1914-15  |           |                                   |                           |   |                                |   |                          |
|                          |               | Freshman  | Sophomore | Freshman | Sophomore |                                   |                           |   |                                |   |                          |
| 1910 ..                  | Fresno        | 40        | 12        | 58       | 20        | 224                               | 30                        | 18  | 11                             | 9   | 994                      |
| 1911 ..                  | Santa Barbara | 23        | 13        | 23       | 4         | 93                                | .....                     | 15  | 12                             | 7   | 480                      |
| 1912 ..                  | Los Angeles   | 490*      | 40*       | 217      | 40        | 574                               | 20                        | 45  | 17                             | 28  | 1,651                    |
| 1913 ..                  | Fullerton     | 28        | .....     | 27       | 17        | 71                                | .....                     | 3   | .....                          | 10  | 295                      |
| 1913 ..                  | Bakersfield   | 10        | .....     | 8        | 4         | 29                                | .....                     | 3   | .....                          | 6   | 501                      |

\*Includes all postgraduate students.

this year from the junior colleges of the state is much greater than in any preceding year. Los Angeles graduated in June a class of 19, Fresno, a class of 20, which is the largest class ever graduated from a junior college in California. Fullerton graduated a class of 10 as its first class.

Those junior colleges that have been organized since 1913 are in the smaller high schools with the exception of the one in the San Diego High School which was started last September and in March had an enrolment of thirty-five students. The San Diego High School enrolls nearly two thousand students, and nine teachers give part time to the junior college department. In March, 1915, there were more than thirteen hundred students enrolled in the junior college departments and postgraduate courses in the high schools of California, and about one hundred teachers were giving part time to teaching in the colleges.

One of the chief causes for the rapid growth of this new educational movement in California is the large size of the state and the great distance of many of the high schools from the two large universities of the state, located respectively at Berkeley and at Palo Alto. Few people realize the actual size of California. It

is a veritable empire—the second largest state in the Union. If the city of San Francisco were placed where St. Louis is, Mount Shasta would rise from the waters of Lake Michigan and San Diego would be a close suburb of Mobile. The fact that the majority of the junior colleges in the state are located in the southern part from 300 to 500 miles from the state university shows the influence of distance in the establishment of these colleges. The great distance of many good high schools from university advantages has prevented hundreds of California's young men and women from university training, and so the percentage of high-school graduates who get a university education is very small.

But the cause of the junior college movement in the high schools of California can be traced to a deeper source than that of the topography of the state. The junior college is no more than a phase of the whole process of the reorganization of secondary education which is not local or sectional, but national. Our state school systems in America must become more unified, more consistent with the needs of the people who make them possible. Equal educational opportunity for all must not be mere theory, as in the past, but a fact. Ours must be a system functioning for the greatest social efficiency for all the citizens of the state, and not for just a few. This conception, it seems, is the root from which came the extension of high-school work. To these causes we may add another—that of the reorganization of education more on a vocational basis. California has been foremost in some respects in the reorganization of its school system and in the attention given its secondary schools, and the junior college is a natural and logical sequence of these changes.

Table II shows the comparison of scholarship of the junior college and high-school students coming from the same institution, as made in the University of California from August, 1913, to January, 1914. Such comparison shows several points in favor of the students coming from the junior college work. During the same semester in which the comparison was made, two junior college students made a notably high scholarship record—one from Pasadena and the other from Long Beach. When admitted to Sophomore or Junior standing in the university the junior

college student holds his own and does so seemingly without difficulty.

TABLE II<sup>a</sup>

|                    | No. of Junior<br>College Students | Average Scholarship<br>of High-School<br>Students | Average Scholarship<br>of Junior College<br>Students |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|
| Los Angeles.....   | 13                                | 2.47  | 2.32   |
| Fresno.....        | 6                                 | 2.36  | 2.19   |
| Santa Barbara..... | 2                                 | 2.42  | 2.17   |
| Total.....         | 21                                | 7.25  | 6.68   |

<sup>a</sup>The University uses the following numeral in ranking its students: 1, denotes marked excellence; 2, is thoroughly satisfactory; 3, pass; 4, re-examination; 5, failure.

But why should a college Freshman do better work in a junior college than in midst of the thousands that too often crowd our universities? At home the junior college student has many advantages. He is taught in small groups; a close personal relation exists between teacher and student, and "sliding" through courses cannot so easily be accomplished. In the junior college the student is taught, not by the inexperienced as often happens in the universities, but by those tested and proved. No whirl of social life plays continually about the student at home as in the larger institutions, and the student's activities are not so much self-directing. Such decided gains for the junior college student as seen in the foregoing comparisons of scholarship was no surprise to those who had guided the instruction of these students in the home college.

That the junior colleges do fit students for the university and that they are actually achieving results may be seen from Table III, which gives the admissions of junior college students to the University of California for the past two years.

The growth of the junior college in California has not been sporadic or ephemeral, but it came as a logical development in the state school system, and its evolution has been perfectly normal and in most cases wisely guided. The junior college is but an index to the larger educational life of a great state whose school system is yet in the making. The industrial, economical, and social forces that are demanding universal opportunities and complete social



efficiency for all the citizens call for the junior college. The junior college is not a mere name in California; it is not simply a branch grafted arbitrarily on the state school system in order to be heralded forth as a new educational device in keeping with the greatness and the grandeur of a country characterized by its originality and its provincialism. Neither is the junior college merely an educational adjunct appended to the four-year high school to suit the whims of a few educational experts, nor just a feeder, for the universities; and it is no Pacific Coast educational fad. In California the junior college may be said to have passed the stages of discussion and experiment and to have entered the class of worthy and acceptable institutions.

TABLE III  
CASES OF ADMISSIONS

|               | Academic Year<br>1912-13 | Academic Year<br>1913-14 | May 1-Oct. 1,<br>1913 | May 1-Oct. 1,<br>1914 | Cases<br>formally rated<br>May 1-Oct. 1,<br>1914 |
|---------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Freshmen....  | 4                        | 9                        | 9                     | 17                    | 14   |
| Sophomores... | 6                        | 11                       | 10                    | 12                    | 20   |
| Juniors.....  | 0                        | 0                        | 0                     | 12                    | 16   |
| Total ...     | 10                       | 20                       | 19                    | 41                    | 50   |

The two-year courses of study given by the junior colleges are about the same in content as those given by the state university for its first two years, but divergence from the pure collegiate training in long-established courses is rapidly becoming apparent. The junior colleges are framing their courses more to suit the needs of the life of the community. In commenting upon the courses of study in the Santa Barbara Junior College, Principal C. A. Hollingshead says: "We are as much concerned with developing a continuation school to fit the needs of our community as with doing the equivalent of prescribed courses in the lower division college work, in fact more concerned." The larger junior colleges of the state now give much attention to such courses as surveying, agriculture, and manual arts, and these courses and others of a practical nature are sure to receive increasing attention in the future.

Most of the junior colleges have very strong faculties to conduct their work. Teachers usually are well trained and have specialized

in their chosen subjects. Table IV shows the preparation and experience of the teachers in the Fresno Junior College for 1914-15.

This strong faculty is headed by Principal Frederick Liddeke, who was trained in the University of Kansas, Harvard University, and the University of Berlin. In most junior colleges of the state the faculties will compare favorably with the Fresno faculty. In many of the junior colleges teachers are found who have taught in a college or university before going into the junior college.

TABLE IV

| Subject       | Degree | Where Received                    | Other Schools Attended                       | Years of Experience | Years in Fresno Junior College |
|---------------|--------|-----------------------------------|--|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| Chemistry...  | Ph.D.  | University of California          | University of Missouri, B.S., A.B.           | 6                   | 3                              |
| Physics ..... | M.S.   | University of California          | Grinnell College, B.S.                       | 3                   | 2                              |
| Mathematics.  | Ph.D.  | University of California          | Leland Stanford Junior University A.B., A.M. | 12                  | 5                              |
| English ..... | A.B.   | University of California          | Wittenberg College                           | 22                  | 2                              |
| History ..... | A.B.   | Leland Stanford Junior University | Boston University                            | 20                  | 5                              |
| Latin .....   | A.B.   | Bates College                     | Radcliffe College                            | 12                  | 2                              |
| German .....  | A.M.   | University of California          | .....  | 6                   | 4                              |
| French .....  | B.L.   | University of California          | University of Paris                          | 7                   | 2                              |
| Surveying ... | A.B.   | Indiana University                | .....  | 3                   | 1                              |

Concerning all the work of the junior colleges it is as yet too early to judge, but from studies made by the University of California of the junior college students who have attended that institution we find an encouraging report. In January, 1913, and in January, 1914, students coming from the junior colleges in the state attained a higher scholarship rank than did students from the high schools. The average scholarship from August to December, 1913, of students in the University who entered directly from high schools was 2.35. The 24 junior college students made an average scholarship for the same time of 2.15—several points higher than the high-school students.

The problems of organization and administration of the junior college are many and oftentimes complex. The road of this new institution has not always been easy or sure. In the organization, shall there be unity or divergence of interests as regards the relations that are to be maintained between the four-year high school and the college department? Shall the junior college be distinct in organization and administration? Shall there be a separate and special faculty, separate classrooms, and private library for the college student? Is the social life of the two classes of students to be considered differently, and must the college students have their own seclusive literary, athletic, and social clubs? Some believe that if the junior college is to mean anything in the life of the student it must, whenever possible, be a part unto itself and never connected in any way with the regular high school. On the other hand, we find the opposite view, that the college should not be differentiated from the high school; that it should be regarded as merely two years more of advanced high-school work, and that there should be no separation of student functions at any time.

The golden mean between these two views is found in most of the junior colleges in California. While there is a real and marked college spirit among the junior college students, unity and co-operation exist. The work, as I have found it in most of the junior colleges of California, is of a high type—it is not just advanced high-school work, but the content of subject-matter and the scope of the work are equal in every important respect to that offered by the state university. The acceptance of junior college work by the state university alone proves its worth.

There are some dangers concerning the junior college development which must be recognized. There must be no social animosities between the two student bodies; no fraternities or sororities; no special clubs or cliques. A unified program is essential, if not absolutely necessary, but this should not preclude many changes in the presentation of the subject-matter, new methods of work, new aims, and larger standards to fit the immediate needs of the work and problems of the junior college. The course of study must not be laid out as a straight, narrow, and assured way

to the entrance of the universities. The work must not be simply to get ready for something ahead—it must be considered as finishing something. If the junior colleges develop courses of study that are fitted as a base on which to build a more advanced training, they will have considerably failed in their mission. The work must be complete in itself—a preparation for citizenship and not for the higher educational institutions. There must be no “deferred education” following the junior college course for those who want no further training. The junior college must provide finishing courses, first and always.

The junior college has a proper place in the school system of a state like California. It has passed, as was said, the critical stage of discussion and of experiment, and while not yet fully and firmly established and adjusted to the public-school system of a great and growing state, it is an institution that has come into our midst to stay. Its future is bright and its field of work large.

## THE MASSACHUSETTS HOME PROJECT PLAN OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION<sup>\*</sup>

RUFUS STIMSON

State Agent for Agricultural Education of Massachusetts

You are doubtless asking yourselves whether the Massachusetts plan of vocational agricultural education has been thoughtfully undertaken and whether it is yielding practical results. It is a big subject. I have over four hundred and fifty slides on it. Those which I am going to show you are a very short set, selected almost at random; and I hope you will believe me when I say that they are not in any sense the best slides. They are simply a set of slides selected to fit the time assigned. The most I can hope for is to give you a quick flight over the field—merely a bird's-eye view of our plan and some of the results.

First, I invite you to consider a little symbolism which I have been using for the past four or five years in the effort to keep my own thinking straight on this subject of vocational education. Remember, we are considering a type of education presumably for pupils over fourteen years of age, namely, the secondary-school age. We are considering a type of secondary-school training. The typical high school of ten years or more ago was a classical high school, a general school devoting itself to cultural subjects. This we might symbolize by a capital C. We have looked up to it, and justly so. Because that type of school met the needs of relatively few, there were those who thought we ought to have a different type of education of secondary grade for those who desired direct preparation for life. Because, again, there were so many cases where the boys did not go to the high school because they saw in the high-school courses nothing that would be of use to them, as they viewed it, there have been those who have made new ventures in the field of secondary education in what has been called "vocational training." This we may symbolize by a capital V.

<sup>\*</sup> Address illustrated with colored lantern slides at meeting of Harvard Teachers' Association in Sandus Theatre, Cambridge, Mass., March 13, 1915.

These vocational ventures in education had a marked effect on the high-school courses. You will scarcely find a high school today which does not show considerable differentiation of courses. The determining factor in this differentiation is the career likely to be followed by the pupil in after-life and the desire that the pupil shall receive direct preparation for that career. Several distinct needs are clearly recognized by almost every high school. We have the preparation for the classical college over against the so-called "Latin scientific course" preparing for the higher technical institution. There are the courses in home-making for girls, and the commercial branches for boys and girls. In fact, a fairer symbol to represent the high school of today would be some such modified emblem as a large *C* and within it a small *v*. Much attention is still given to the cultural purposes of the high school, but at least some recognition is given to direct training for the career the pupil is likely to follow.

Similarly, along with the most direct preparation for the career of the pupil in the vocational type of school there have come decided cultural or civic values. So evident is this that I think we must agree that the vocational school of today, in Massachusetts at least, must fairly be represented by a large *V* with a small *c* within it.

In view of this development there have been those who have urged the desirability of a balanced type of training—not so much time given as in the cultural type of school to general studies, not so much attention given to direct preparation for a calling as in the vocational type of school—a type of school, in short, which might be symbolized by a rather large *C* superimposed upon a *V* drawn to the same scale. So far as the Board of Education is concerned, we erase from consideration this middle type. We recognize two distinctive types of training in the secondary field, one represented by the large *C* and small *v*, the other represented by the large *V* and small *c*. It is with the latter that we are to be concerned at this hour.

The first slides will show you a series of pictures illustrating somewhat the equipment appropriate to the distinctively agricultural purposes of the vocational agricultural school.



The Petersham High School will interest you because President Eliot was one of the most distinguished men at its dedication. This school has a beautiful building, erected in part from funds raised by taxation and in part from funds subscribed by public-spirited citizens. A small greenhouse was provided. The school has at its disposal about ten acres of land, on part of which there are a number of old apple trees that have been renovated by the pupils, and on part of which the pupils have set out a young orchard. I speak of this greenhouse, however, for the further purpose of saying that this is the only vocational school in the state that has a greenhouse, and because I wish to say at this point that we have instruction in a number of places where the school has not an inch of land or a head of live stock of any description at the school, the work of the pupil and the instructor, in class exercises and individually, being carried out on farms—usually the home farms of the pupils themselves. A greenhouse may be an advantage, but it is not required for state aid.

Outwardly the headquarters of an agricultural school or department may appear to be like any other school building. Once you are inside the schoolroom, however, you find yourself in a different kind of a room from the ordinary schoolroom. It corresponds more to the library-laboratory room or to the laboratory for the study of science. We cannot use ordinary school desks; we need more elbow room; we have to study pamphlet material, data which are available only in bulletin form. We have to keep accounts. That is, our pupils must have room to spread their material out before them. For this reason small tables allowing for each pupil a surface  $2\frac{1}{2} \times 3$  feet are preferred.

In all cases you will find a selected list of agricultural publications and books with an appropriate filing system for ready reference. If you desired to see a good example near Boston of a well-equipped agricultural room, you could not do better than to visit the Concord High School Agricultural Department. There you would find, for example, an apple-packing table, made by the boys and used in teaching the boys. That table was also used at a short course in apple-packing given to twelve adult farmers who applied for it this last winter. In that same room you would find an admirable collection of samples of corn, heads of grains and grasses,

samples of grain and grass seeds affording standards for ascertaining the relative purity of seeds available on the market, samples of vegetable seeds, samples of chemicals used as fertilizers, samples of spraying materials, samples of feeds; you would find spraying implements. Though a school may have no land it may be an advantage for it to have a pretty complete equipment of tools which may be lent to pupils whose money should be carefully husbanded for buying fertilizers or for other needs extending throughout the season, as over against the pruning shears, which may be used but a few hours or a few days in a year. In this room, you would find poultry appliances, including incubators, different kinds of brooders, feeding-hoppers, and drinking-fountains. Not the least important, you would find a rack for farm papers and an excellent selection of publications of this kind received from week to week or month to month.

Of course, "related study" materials include non-book sorts, and these require care and protection; uniform packages or mounts are an advantage and add to the attractiveness and apparent order of the agricultural classroom. Finally, there is a well-kept bulletin board.

Now you want to know what the course of study is. That is usually determined by the vocation for which the individual prepares. I am now going to deal chiefly with the home-project plan of teaching agriculture. The home projects are graded with reference to the relative risks involved, the younger boys, of fourteen or fifteen, being assigned projects which involve the least risk, those in the later 'teens or in the twenties being assigned the projects involving the heaviest risks, and the intermediate risks being distributed through the intermediate years between those ages. For instance, boys of fourteen or so study the elementary plant projects, such as kitchen gardening and ornamental planting. Here the big item is labor, and the boys themselves furnish that. In the next grade, at fifteen or over, they get animal husbandry, dealing with small stock, such as poultry, sheep and goats, swine and bees. In the third year they get advanced plant projects, such as small fruit-growing, orcharding and market gardening, growing fruit and vegetables for sale. In the fourth year they finish with advanced projects in animal husbandry, dairying, and general

farm management and agriculture as a business. In addition to these supervised projects for any given year a pupil may carry out certain unsupervised projects on his own account, and he usually does. For instance, he carries on kitchen gardening, which is a first-year project, throughout the course; he may continue poultry-keeping, which is a second-year project, in the third and fourth years; and he may continue fruit-growing and market gardening, which are third-year projects, through the fourth year. Once the boy is started with the easier projects in the first year, he is encouraged and helped with them throughout the four years' course, and all through the four years the other members of his family are encouraged to co-operate with him, in the interest of producing the best possible home garden. The training all through is a training for self-help.

The agricultural instructors are on duty throughout the summer, some of them riding weekly circuits of forty, sixty, and even ninety miles in going from farm to farm among their pupils. They do a vast amount of "county agent" or "farm bureau" work among the adult farmers along their routes and hold appointments as "collaborators" of the United States Department of Agriculture, have the franking privilege, and work in the closest co-operation with the Massachusetts Agricultural College extension service.

The efficiency of the instructors as a unified body is promoted by mid-winter and mid-summer conferences at which they all meet at the agricultural college. At these conferences representatives of the United States Department of Agriculture and the Bureau of Education are present, which tends to insure team-work through the instructors for the benefit of practical farmers as well as the boys in the agricultural classes in every locality.

One striking feature of the results of the work is that during 1914 the earnings of 235 boys, in connection with good work at school, amounted to over \$42,000, all but about \$4,000 from farm work. Agriculture, in short, is the big interest of the boys who succeed in the vocational type of schooling.

Mr. Stimson illustrated with colored lantern slides details of equipment, courses of study, methods of instruction and supervision, home projects of all kinds and the methods of accounting followed. A few slides on the country boy's recreations were also shown.—EDITOR.

THE REVISED SYLLABUS FOR A THREE-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL  
COURSE IN GERMAN PRESENTED AT THE GERMAN  
SECTION OF THE TWENTY-SEVENTH EDUCATIONAL  
CONFERENCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,  
FRIDAY, APRIL 16, 1915

At the German section of the Educational Conference at the University of Chicago in April, 1913, a committee consisting of three high-school teachers and a representative of the University of Chicago presented a syllabus for a three-year high-school course in German. In the discussion of the syllabus at this meeting and also at the conference the following year, the opinion was expressed by some that teachers in public schools with large classes could not complete the work outlined in the syllabus within the given time. A new and larger committee was therefore appointed on motion of the conference last year to revise the syllabus. This committee submitted at the conference this year a syllabus which seems to meet the approval of a large body of high-school teachers. A comparison with the original syllabus published in the *School Review*, XXII, No. 2 (February, 1914), will show that the reading requirement and the work in grammar have been reduced in the revised syllabus. The work in composition also has been made a little lighter in the third year. The reading-lists recommending books of a certain degree of difficulty for each year were left unchanged except that a few additional books were suggested. The revised syllabus without the reading-lists follows:

GERMAN I

READING

60-100 pages.

COMPOSITION

Drill in construction of sentences based on text. Free reproduction of very simple reading-matter, oral and written. Some translation into German of English based on text read.

1. Thoroughness in all phases of the work is necessary.
2. Special attention should be given to pronunciation.
3. Grammatical forms and rules of grammar should be learned through emphasis put on their application in the oral and written composition mentioned above.
4. The memorizing of a few easy poems is desirable. Incidentally, this may be a great aid in the acquiring of a correct pronunciation.

## GRAMMAR

Declension of the definite and indefinite articles, demonstratives, and possessive adjectives.

Noun declension.

Adjective declension: Weak and mixed.

Declension of personal pronouns.

The interrogative and relative pronouns should be explained but thorough drill in their use should be reserved for the second year.

Verbs:

Principal parts of the most common strong verbs (about 40).

Conjugation of strong and weak verbs in five tenses.

Polite form of the imperative.

Present and imperfect tenses of the modals and their most common meanings.

The reflexive verbs, present and imperfect.

Prepositions with the dative, the accusative, and with both the dative and the accusative.

Word-order:

Normal, including the use of *aber*, *allein*, *sondern*, *denn*, *oder*, and *und*.

Inverted order.

Transposed order, with special emphasis on the use of *als*, *weil*, *wenn*, and *dass*.

No topic need be presented in all its details, but whatever is taken up should be done thoroughly. The mastery of noun, adjective, and verb forms and of word-order is of especial importance.

## GERMAN II

## READING

100-150 pages.

## COMPOSITION

Questions and answers on simple texts should lead to the oral and written reproduction of the same. Translation into German of connected English based on text read may be substituted in part.

## GRAMMAR

A. The following subjects should be thoroughly taught and drilled:

Review of the grammar of German I.

Frequent review of adjective declension and word-order, by means of "German-German" exercises.

Inflections not completed in German I, as follows: nouns; adjectives—strong declension, comparison; relative and interrogative pronouns; verbs—principal parts of additional strong verbs and the most common irregular weak verbs, occurring in the reading; the most common verbs requiring the dative.

- B. The following topics may be explained and some drill may be given. It cannot be expected, however, that proficiency can be attained at this time in their use in oral and written composition. Further drill must be given in succeeding years:

Modals, and verbs used like the modals, in perfect tenses with accompanying infinitive, not including their use in dependent clauses.

The passive voice, five tenses.

The subjunctive mode in indirect discourse and unreal condition, and the first conditional in connection with these.

The most common prepositions with the genitive.

### GERMAN III

#### READING

About 300 pages. Texts recommended for German II may well be used for more rapid reading in German III and for outside reading. The magazines *Aus Nah und Fern* and *Die Woche* are recommended for use throughout the course at the discretion of the teacher. The classics and the formal study of literature should not yet be attempted. It should rather be the aim to cultivate an intelligent appreciation of the works of the modern authors read in class.

#### COMPOSITION

Some free reproduction of texts read and simple theme-writing on topics suggested by the text.

For more thorough work in free reproduction, simpler texts should be chosen, as for example, Stern's *Geschichten vom Rhein*.

#### GRAMMAR

Review of grammar and thorough drill on topics under "B" in German II. Further details of grammar as the need for them arises.

By the Committee:

CHARLES GOETTSCH, *Chairman*, University of Chicago

THERESE DILLON, Chicago Teachers College

JOHN C. WEIGEL, University of Chicago

HEDWIG HOCHBAUM, Tuley High School, Chicago

FRANCES B. BLISS, Lake View High School, Chicago

BERTHA VINCENT, Senn High School, Chicago

S. PAUL JONES, Evanston Township High School

HARRY G. VORSCHHEIM, Austin High School, Chicago

LYDIA M. SCHMIDT, University High School, Chicago

EDNA C. DUNLAP, Parker High School, Chicago



## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The present time seems to be opportune for taking account of the significance of the vocational guidance movement. If intelligently evaluated and directed, it has great possibilities for the improvement of our systems of public education. On the other hand, it may fail in its beneficent purpose altogether if these possibilities are overestimated, if irrational methods are employed, or if impossible results are promised.

Like most new movements, its chief dangers lie in the extravagant claims of its too-zealous promoters on the one hand, and the unreasoning skepticism of the ultra-conservatives in education on the other. Somewhere between these two extremes will be found a reasonable vocational guidance program which is receiving the attention and gaining the respect of a large number of progressive educators.

For example, there are those who appear to believe that it is easily possible to develop a system of character analysis by means of which marked vocational aptitudes can be discovered or equally marked incapacities can be detected and pointed out. Such advocates of vocational guidance deprecate any attempt to counsel youth until a complete and adequate method has been worked out by trained specialists, and they point out the grave dangers which attend an "unscientific" plan of guidance. They generally demand an equally thorough study of vocations, and feel that the information thus gained should be systematized and prepared for use before any vocational guidance should be attempted.

On the other hand there are those who, seeing the great difficulty of carrying out the plans of these extremists, and being quite willing to delay action and to justify the schools as they are, deny both the possibility and the necessity of vocational guidance as a school function.

Between these extremes will be found many progressive school men who are proceeding on the assumption that the public-school system should articulate with life at many more points than it now does; points well distributed between the professions at one extreme and the humblest vocations at the other. While they appreciate the contributions which scientific study can and will make, ultimately, to the movement, these progressive educators see great need of immediate action, and they are proceeding accordingly.

Details cannot be discussed here, but, speaking generally, these educators are working on the theory that vocational guidance is not a new function of education, but rather an old function which needs liberal extension. This extension, furthermore, lies within two well-defined fields, the first being curriculum enlargement or adjustment, and the second, educational supervision of those who have left the regular schools.

The first leads naturally to the establishment of new vocational courses, the revision and adaptation of old ones, and the necessary "educational" guidance which will enable the pupil to choose intelligently from the rich educational offerings.

The second leads, quite as naturally, to the establishment or improvement of evening schools, compulsory day continuation schools, and the inauguration of what the English term "registration"; that is, the school employment office or "placement bureau." All this may be designated as employment supervision.

We are of the opinion that curriculum improvement and employment supervision, while they cannot solve all problems, will go far to meet the present demand for vocational guidance in the schools. Indeed, as was affirmed some years ago, "vocational guidance means guidance for educations, not guidance for jobs," though "jobs" may be the ultimate goal. Therefore school officials, even though they cannot command a vocational survey by trained investigators, should take an active part in the vocational guidance movement, for, surely, all who are genuinely interested in the full unfolding of the American system of popular education are hoping that the movement will prove to be, not a mere eddy in the stream, but a real quickening and broadening of the whole educational current.

FRANK M. LEAVITT

---

#### EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

Mr. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., of the Bureau of Education, is the author of a little pamphlet entitled *General Survey of Education, 1914*, which has just appeared, a government bulletin reprint from the report of the Commissioner of Education. He gives the following interesting facts:

There were, in 1914, 22,000,000 persons enrolled in educational institutions in the United States, more than one-fifth of the total population. Of these, 19,000,000 were in elementary schools, 1,374,000 in secondary schools, 201,000 in colleges and universities, 100,000 in normal schools, 67,000 in professional schools, and the remainder scattered through other types of institutions. There are 700,000 teachers in the United States.

The cost of education for the year was approximately \$750,000,000, which is less by \$300,000,000 than the cost of running the federal government; about one-third the nation's expenditure for alcoholic liquors; three times the estimated cost of admissions to moving-picture theaters in the United States; somewhat more than the value of the 1914 cotton crop; less than one-half the value of the corn crop, and somewhat less than the value of the wheat crop.

Statistics for 1914 show private elementary schools as follows: parochial schools numbering 5,403 with 1,429,000 pupils; Lutheran schools, 4,800 with 259,000 pupils. Of the 567 colleges and universities, 327 are listed under denominational control. Of the 2,199 private high schools and academies, 1,489 are under control of religious denominations. These secondary institutions of 28 different denominations have 100,000 pupils. In 1914 there were 863 Catholic high schools.

The statistics show 13,714 public and private high schools for the year with 1,373,661 students, an increase of nearly 100,000 over the preceding year, an increase of more than 100 per cent since 1902. During the past year the fourth-year students numbered 14.27 per cent as compared with 13.94 per cent in 1913, and 11.68 per cent in 1907. Of the 11,515 public high schools, 8,275 have four-year courses. They contain 92.42 per cent of the public high-school enrolment as compared with 91.21 per cent in 1913 and 88.3 per cent in 1911. The number of girls shows a slightly greater proportion: 56.3 per cent of the students in high schools were girls in 1914 as against 55.46 per cent in 1913. The junior high school was indorsed by all but one of the educational surveys published during the year. One hundred and sixty-eight cities claimed to have the junior high school; and in 57 cities, junior high schools are organized in unmistakable form.

Especially interesting are the facts presented by Mr. Ryan concerning teacher-training. Graduates of normal schools for the year numbered 20,658. It is estimated that 15,000 teachers went into the rural schools from teacher-training courses in high schools, and about 5,000 were graduated from college after taking courses in education, most of these teaching in high schools. From these facts it seems to be clear that the supply of professionally prepared teachers is not yet sufficient for the number of teaching positions that must be filled every year. This need is felt most keenly in the rural schools and in the high schools. To meet this need, between 1910 and 1914 the number of institutions engaged in training teachers increased from 1,397 to 1,620, and the number of students in these schools increased from 115,000 to 122,000, the

latter figure not including students in colleges and universities. All of this development is accompanied by a remarkable increase of summer work. Of the more than 200,000 persons in attendance at summer schools in 1914, it is estimated that fully one-third were teachers seeking professional preparation.

A most rapid development of teacher-training courses in the high schools has taken place in 1914: 1,051 schools were reported as engaged in the work of preparation of teachers, with 21,076 students in the courses. This is an increase since 1911 of 440 schools and 6,396 students. Maryland and Ohio established teacher-training in the public high schools by legislative act in 1914; 288 miscellaneous institutions also reported that they were training teachers in 1914.

#### EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL CLASSES OF CHILDREN

The magnitude of the problem of the handicapped child and the extent to which the states have taken over the burden of his education are indicated in the statistics for special schools collected by the Bureau of Education. The 62 public schools for the blind report 665 teachers, 4,971 pupils, and an aggregate expenditure of \$2,563,173 for the year 1914. Of the 151 schools for the deaf listed by the bureau, 68 are state schools, 65 public day schools, and 18 are private schools. There are 13,859 pupils, taught by 1,689 teachers. The expenditure of the 68 state schools for the deaf in 1914 was \$3,777,162.

State schools for feeble-minded children numbered 38; these are confined to 28 states, New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania each having three or more separate schools. There are also 25 private schools for feeble-minded children. State schools reported 381 instructors and 2,328 assistants, with 27,692 inmates, of whom 14,880 were actually under instruction. Expenditures for schools for the feeble-minded amounted to nearly \$6,000,000. Public day schools for subnormal children were reported from 54 cities. Thirty-six cities in 24 states made provision for exceptional children for the first time in 1913, and 162 cities in 34 states extended the provision already made. Special training for teachers of exceptional children is now provided in a score or more of institutions of college and university grade.

There are 112 institutions listed by the Bureau of Education as state "industrial" schools. These are schools for delinquents of both sexes, ranging from reform schools of the prison type to modern well-equipped industrial schools for the teaching of useful trades. There

are 1,052 teachers, 3,085 assistants who are not teachers, and 54,798 inmates in these institutions, of whom four-fifths are boys. Of the 21,665 boys and girls committed to institutions during the year, 2,635 could neither read nor write; of the 22,068 discharged during the year, 1,962 could neither read nor write.

#### DIRECT SUBSIDIES FOR TEACHERS

The Department of Education of Ontario, Canada, encourages the schools of the Provincial System by making special grants to school boards and teachers, under certain specified conditions. For instance, an annual grant of \$100.00 is made to the teacher in art who holds a certificate as a specialist in art, obtained on a departmental examination, and an additional \$100.00 if he holds also a diploma from the Ontario College of Art. The school board whose art teacher has earned the special grant thus provided is required to purchase at least one hundred dollars worth of works of art, approved by the department, and toward the cost of which the Province grants \$50.00.

Similar subsidies are granted to promote the teaching of agriculture, horticulture, household sciences, manual training, music, physical culture. For example, an annual grant of \$120.00 is paid to the holder of a high-school professional certificate and the degree B.Sc. (A.G.R.) for carrying on the lower- and middle-school courses, respectively, for the calendar year. Varying sums are offered as annual grants to teachers in different stages of preparation, adding from \$25.00 to \$200.00 a year to the teacher's salary, and approximately the same sum to the school trustees.

There are certain obvious objections to subsidies given directly to the individual teachers. Nevertheless, the impetus for more extended preparation through these grants is made at once positive and effective. Under the present system of promoting teachers in the United States, at least, there is too much opportunity for a teacher simply to hold on to his position with approximately the same salary, making little or no progress. The hope of increased remuneration sometime in the future, vague and indefinite as it is, is frequently an insufficient inducement for further preparation. On the contrary, a definite promise of a specific but respectable sum of money as a reward for an earnest effort to secure better equipment is probably the most effective stimulus that could be devised. Indeed, it may be suggested that both federal and state subsidies might be, on the whole, far more productive of good results if they extended their benefits directly to the teachers rather than to the school boards.

## EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, OLD AND NEW

We remember an interesting school meeting twenty-six or -seven years ago when the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences proposed a series of conferences for teachers to promote the study of psychology as a guide for education. A bright and active member of the staff of the Boys' High School read a paper. He had, he said, canvassed every teacher in his own organization, and several outside of it, and had not been able to find one person who had obtained the slightest aid to the work of teaching from the study of any book upon psychology. He was the hit of the occasion. We applauded him most heartily. Those were the days when one was always sure of the acclaim of an audience of teachers if he would advance to the front of the platform, with uplifted hands, and say, "With all due respect to these seekers after new things, I can only repeat what twenty-five years of experience has borne in upon me, *doctor nascitur non fit*, the true teacher is born and not made."

One remembers the time when the most prominent old physician in his town took delight in demonstrating that machine-made medical men were charlatans. The way to be a physician is to begin by sweeping out the office and harnessing the horse. One recollects the scorn an old Michigan Central Railroad builder felt for the civil engineers turned out by colleges. The millwright who put in the dams in the Huron River had a rich array of stories of the stupidity of the men who studied in Ann Arbor. Poultney Bigelow quotes Edison affirming, "A college man isn't worth a dam (a wad of clay used by tinkers to prevent the solder running off) in the business." The commercial men we canvassed in 1902 regarding the teaching of salesmanship in the business departments of the high schools were almost unanimous that a study of the principles of the display of advertising, of engaging the interest of customers, of courtesy, of measuring, of making of sales slips, would be worse than a waste of time. We marvel at the changes we have seen. Within the limited number of commercial men known to us are those who have spent the firm's money to give their men a course in Sheldon's Art of Selling. Hydraulic, mechanical, electric, civil engineers send to the schools of technology for men. We do not know a doctor who came into the profession except from a medical school.

There must have been some good ground for the impatience of practical men toward what they called the theoretical fol-de-rol of the books. Who has not turned in weariness from the padded psychologies pushed into the hands of teachers? Forty years ago the University of Michigan established courses for the training of teachers. It was the regular thing



for the instructor in psychology to change the textbook every year, because the class found each successive volume insufferably dull. But we have come on famously. We have today psychologies that are distinctly readable; textbooks that do not flood the whole expanse of antiquity to give the student a few weak trickles into the field of his daily job.

WILLIAM MCANDREW

---

#### ADDITIONAL PAY FOR SUMMER WORK

The New York teachers are almost a unit in opposing the proposal to have regular day-school teachers carry on the work of vacation schools. An elaborate statement, drawn up by one of their number and signed by the presidents of nearly two score teachers' associations, sets forth, in detail, their objections to the plan. This brief appears to be inconclusive. For example an elaborate argument is made to the effect that a longer school year is tantamount to a reduction in salary, that this lowering of salary will repel efficient teachers, who will seek employment elsewhere.

This argument itself appears to be sound, if it is a fact that New York proposes to require six or eight weeks additional from any of its teachers without additional pay, unless the burdens of the regular school year are greatly lessened for each individual teacher. However, it is inconceivable that any such unfair proposal should be seriously considered. In Newark, New Jersey, the city which is used as a horrible example in the pamphlet by the Association of Presidents, the teachers in the all-year schools are employed on the basis of the twelve-months term instead of the ten-months term, and the monthly salary is the same for the additional two months as for the other months. It requires little imagination to conjecture how quickly a sufficient number of New York teachers, including the principals, would gladly work a month or six weeks longer in the year for an addition of one-tenth to one-twelfth more to their annual salary. In Gary, the teachers are employed by the month and are paid extra for Saturday and summer work, according to the state law of Indiana, which defines a school week as five days and the school month as twenty days. In Cleveland, for summer work the teachers are paid four-fifths of their salary in the regular day schools, the summer service being four hours a day instead of five. In the light of these facts, and of all other information available, it is difficult to understand how any school authorities could seriously propose to reduce the salary of their teachers by extending their school year. If such a

proposal is made in New York it ought to be unsparingly condemned; if such a proposal is not under consideration in New York the brief signed by the associated principals makes them appear ridiculous.

---

#### SUPERVISED STUDY

Some six years ago a plan for supervision of study was introduced into the Pottstown, Pennsylvania, High School. This plan differs from the generally used device of double periods, in that there is a real division of function. Are we right in thinking that study can best be carried on in the same atmosphere as the regular recitation work? Is it not far better that there should be little or no suggestion of preparation in the regular period for recitation and some time set aside for the special, definite purpose of teaching how to study?

Convinced that this was the solution of much of the difficulty in the way of pupils' inability to grasp the subject-matter of their lessons, the writer formulated the following plan, which has had at least some influence in meeting and solving the problem so common to our high schools:

The study period is arranged for at the end of the day, as in that way the teacher can test the efficiency of the assignment before the pupils have gone home. If this assignment has met the purpose intended, the teacher can rest well, as the pupil can finish any work that is not complicated in the study period without further help. If there must be some home study, it is properly prepared for. The pupil has the necessary direction to carry out the daily assignment in the teacher's absence.

This plan provides for another valid objection to the combined periods. It has been asserted by some teachers who are using the combined plan that the pupils are kept in school too long and the wear and tear on both the teacher and pupils is too great. This comes from trying to do two things at once; from teaching and reciting at the same time or the putting of these two processes, which are wholly different in nature, altogether too contiguous.

Another and far more important feature of the plan used here is that we dismiss the pupils who make an average of 90 per cent when the study period begins. Are we not right in assuming that those who make good records have solved for themselves the problem of proper study? In questioning a very enthusiastic teacher who is in a school where the combination method is employed, I found, not unexpectedly, that he was giving the major, and by far the major, portion of the time devoted to

study to the weaker pupils. "This is inevitably so," he remarked. Now why should we interfere with those who are solving the problem probably far better for themselves than we could do for them? Self-activity is far more valuable to a pupil than any direction we can give. By this plan we attend to the cases which need a physician and do not hamper or weaken the well by unnecessary interference with their own activities. If a pupil can do for himself all that is required he should be rewarded for his ability, and by shortening his day in the schoolroom that much we are recognizing his ability and devotion to his work—something we are prone to neglect.

In all the time we have been using this early dismissal plan for the pupils who are doing the work in a superior way I have yet to hear a word of complaint on the part of the parents of these pupils. We can all very vividly hear the storm of protest which comes from the parents of pupils who are not doing the work when, even for a day, the school routine is interrupted. Pupils who do well in school do not as a rule offer any serious trouble to their parents and there is no objection at all about having them at home early. They organize their time properly and no parent will find fault.

The superiority of this plan over the double period seems apparent for the reasons given: it does not keep the studious pupil in school longer than he should be so confined, it puts the emphasis on the real work in hand and the teacher has only the weak pupil to deal with, and it gives a sensible incentive to any pupil to improve his work so as to gain recognition.

L. I. LOVELAND

POTTSTOWN, PA.

---

#### CHICAGO SCHOOLS

The Chicago public schools are being investigated by several different bodies. A committee from the state senate is looking into the question of the recent trouble between the superintendent and the members of the Board of Education; and into the deficits, and into the holding by the Board of very much unused property. A second investigation is being directed by the Board itself. It is intended to show that rumors of speculation in school sites and of other forms of mismanagement are thoroughly unfounded. It is to be hoped that the Board will be able to vindicate itself from these charges of graft, of stuffed pay rolls, of speculation, and of unnecessary friction with city officials. It is announced that this investigation will be made by a firm of public account-

ants selected by certain important civic organizations within the city. A third committee from the City Council is also delving into the situation of the Chicago schools.

Even a casual observer must know that politics are bound to be rife in so large a board and in a population so varied as Chicago's is. Alas, quite possibly politics are bound to be rife in any board representing a democratic constituency made up of so many various elements.

Not only is the Board active in defending itself against charges of mismanagement, but it is also said to be maturing plans for the reorganization of business procedure. These plans contemplate the abolition of the committee on special schools, the different functions heretofore discharged by that committee to be distributed among certain new committees.

There is to be a committee on recreation centers; a committee on attendance, superseding the bureau of attendance; a committee on continuation instruction, which is also to have general charge of the work now performed by the bureau of lectures. Other committees, on vocational schools, on salaries, and on grades, are to be added. The committees on finance, by-laws and legislation, high schools and training schools, nominations and athletics, and other minor committees will continue as at present.

No reports or resolutions, adopted by standing or special committees, on the day of the Board meeting, or on the Monday or Tuesday preceding, are to be presented to the Board, except such as relate to the award of contracts or appropriations therefore.

All ordinary administrative business, not involving the initiation of a new policy, will be under the immediate direction of the executive heads of the various bureaus and departments, subject to the general direction of their respective committees.

This latter proposal, which relieves the Board and its committees from considering matters of administrative detail, is highly commendable. It is a step toward the theory of a small board of education which determines policies, but leaves administrative details in the hands of its expert employees.

---

#### HIGH-SCHOOL TERMINOLOGY

The wisdom of a uniform terminology in various educational circles is coming to the fore. A few years ago the universities and colleges adopted standard terms; last year the language teachers promulgated plans for uniform nomenclature. At the Cincinnati convention, the

National Commission on Reorganization, recognizing difficulties encountered from differing constructions placed upon terms commonly used in the high-school field, adopted, officially, the following lists: "Elementary Education, Secondary Education and Collegiate Education" (defined qualitatively as to distinguishing content, method, and function), "High School," "Junior High School," "Senior High School," "Junior College," "Incomplete High School," "General Education," "Vocational Education," "Vocational Guidance," "Prevocational Education," "Industrial Education," "Agricultural Education," "Domestic Education," "Commercial Education," "Teachers' Training Education," "Occupational Education," "Independent Industrial, Agricultural, Domestic, or Teacher-Training High School," "Industrial, Agricultural, Domestic, Commercial, or Normal Training Curriculum," "Evening Class," "Part-Time Class," "Continuation School," "Program of Studies," "Schedule of Classes," "Curriculum," "Allied Group of Courses," "Sequential Group," "Department," "High-School Subject," "Course," "Credit Unit," "Extra Credit," "Outside Credits," "Unit of Instruction," "Graduation," "School Year," "Class Period," "Subject Class," "Elective System," "Group System," "Curriculum System," "High-School Major," "High-School Minor," "Pupil," "School Class," "Grade Marks," "Honorable Dismissal," "Statement of Record."

Two admirable explanatory articles, by Charles Hughes Johnston, setting forth the wish of the committee, together with a careful explanation of the terms, all may be found in February and March numbers of the *Educational Review*.

#### THE JUNIOR SCHOOL

The following data were prepared for the October, 1914, meeting of the New Jersey Council of Education, by Dr. William A. Wetzel, Principal of the Trenton High School:

The present division of our schools into elementary grades, 1-8, and secondary grades, 9-12, is "not only undesirable but illogical, based on the accidents of history." Indictment follows:

1. Monotonous repetition of common branches prolonged unnecessarily at the expense of secondary subjects which should be begun.
2. It violates the order in which subjects should be presented, e.g., foreign language (based on memory) better in the seventh grade than the usual course in arithmetic (involving difficult reasoning).
3. Too many subjects in Grades 7 and 8 and much of subject-matter not vital. Pupils are overworked.

4. Pupils are retarded unnecessarily through promotion by grades rather than by subjects. This affects both the slow pupil and the pupil of superior ability.

5. A gap between the elementary school and the high school difficult to bridge because:

- a) Too great change in subjects.
- b) Departmental teaching.
- c) Distance to high school.
- d) The change comes during rather than at the beginning of the adolescent period.

e) The first two years of high school are preparatory years rather than finishing years.

6. Seventh- and eighth-grade pupils are too old to fit into the school life of lower grades.

7. The plan is frequently wasteful:

a) Of the teacher's time, in teaching small seventh- and eighth-grade sections.

b) Of equipment, science equipment, shops, kitchens, etc. Many cities have cooking and manual-training centers, thus recognizing need of centralizing seventh and eighth grades.

8. The present manual training courses in Grades 7 and 8 fail to give the "overall" education that all city boys need.

9. The present plan is not in harmony with the compulsory school law. The compulsory school law keeps in school two classes of pupils who are hard to fit into the present arrangement:

a) Non-bookminded pupils in Grades 7 and 8.

b) Older pupils in the first year in high school who sit in "watchful waiting" until they are sixteen years old.

10. The presence of these pupils does not create but exaggerates the need of differentiated courses. Failure to recognize this need constitutes the most serious charge.

Differentiation of courses should begin at twelve years of age. It is no more undemocratic to differentiate at this age than at fourteen or fifteen. Democracy in education means equality of opportunity rather than equality of treatment.

Suggested remedy is:

Elementary school, Grades 1-6; junior school, Grades 7-10; senior school, Grades 11-12 (or junior school, Grades 7-9, senior school, Grades 10-12).

Advantages of the plan:

1. It makes definite the work of the elementary school and of the secondary school. (See Johnston, *High-School Education*, pp. 75-78.) The shorter time devoted to the three R's would result in elimination of much that is unessential.

2. It makes possible the grouping of pupils according to their capacities and needs, and makes the public school a genuinely democratic institution.

General classification would be the following: Academic, industrial or domestic, commercial.

3. Promotion by subjects breaks up the "lockstep" system. (2) and (3) would be very beneficial to both poorer and better pupils.

4. It reduces school mortality. New Bedford, Massachusetts, has a junior school established in 1912. The attendance in the seventh grade increased in three years from 287 to 522. In the same time the attendance in the eighth grade increased from 214 to 352.

5. It is reasonable to claim that earlier introduction of secondary subjects will save time in preparation for a professional career. This is important because many professions, notably law, medicine, engineering, are rapidly reaching the point where they demand a college course as a prerequisite to professional study.

6. The junior school brings together a homogeneous body. Reaction of methods of discipline, school organization, and student organizations on the student body will be wholesome. Discuss sports, auditorium exercises, holiday programs, etc.

7. Better science equipment will be placed at the disposal of pupils in Grades 7 and 8.

8. The faculty can be chosen to secure teachers, men and women, who are both trained in the subjects they shall teach, and in sympathy with youth.

9. The junior school will, in the large cities, bring secondary instruction nearer to the homes of the pupils, and thus reach a larger number of pupils.

10. The work of the senior school could be made more intense. More rigid standards of scholarship could be applied.

11. The junior school would be helpful in both vocational guidance and vocational training. With its varied courses it would help pupils to find themselves. The correlated shop and academic training would be helpful to those pupils who left before finishing the junior course. Graduates of the junior school would be old enough and would have received excellent training, to enter a trade school or begin an apprenticeship.

12. A junior school including ages twelve to sixteen could provide an excellent cultural education for pupils desiring it. The need for such a school is urgent.

13. The division of time under this plan not only corresponds to changes in the life of the child, but makes possible a sane enforcement of the compulsory school law.



## BOOK REVIEWS

*The Public Schools and Women in Office Service.* Women's Educational and Industrial Union Department of Research. Prepared under Direction of MAY ALLINSON, M.A., Associate Director of the Department. Preface by F. V. THOMPSON, Assistant Superintendent of the Boston Schools in Charge of the Vocational Schools. Pp. ix+186.

This volume presents the results of an inquiry undertaken at the request of Mr. Thompson to "throw light on some of the problems of training girls for office service" (p. 12). Two other inquiries, not yet completed, were undertaken at the same time, one by the Boston Chamber of Commerce Committee on Education to perform a similar task in relation to the education of boys, and one by a Committee of Commercial Teachers, representing the Massachusetts State Board of Education, "to examine the business careers of boys and girls who had been out of school some time" (p. viii).

The aim of the present study is said to be to "present the business, economic, and social conditions which confront the public commercial high schools and which should determine the formulation of their curricula" rather than to analyze the existing curriculum or attempt to plan a new course of study (p. 15). This plan is carried out in a series of chapters, prepared by the Fellows in the Department, on "The Public School and Its Problems" (Lucy C. Phinney), "Character of Office Service" (Jean M. Cunningham), "Wages" (Margaret M. Lothrop), "Home Life and Responsibilities" (Hazel Manning). The text is supplemented by 44 tables and 9 charts. Miss Allinson supplies an introductory and a final chapter. She finds the task before the school in organizing an educational program for office positions, as for all vocational education, to be fourfold: "First, an intimate acquaintance with the conditions and demands of the occupation is necessary. . . . Second, an equally intimate acquaintance with the background and characteristics of the prospective worker and her possibilities for success and of adjustment to the demands of the occupation is essential. Third, on the basis of this knowledge, applicants for training should be carefully considered and tested out. They should be given a clear understanding of the occupation to which they are aspiring and of its conditions and requirements. Those students who lack the requisite qualifications should be directed into lines for which they have some capacity and interest. Those who are eligible for training should be carefully studied, so that the qualities in which they are lacking should be most efficiently supplemented and developed. When the pupil has completed the course of training, the school [surely through some central agency, not through an agency

created in connection with each school] should make every effort to place her in the position where she has greatest opportunity to develop her particular abilities and can give the most efficient service. Fourth, close co-operation with the pupil who has gone to work and with her employer will enable the educator to profit by the experience of all concerned and continually to adjust the curriculum to changing requirements. Vocational education based on these four principles has three most desirable results: First, it will save the girl without the requisite qualifications from disappointment and failure in an occupation in which she has no chance for success. Second, it will raise the standard of the occupation. Third, it will provide those eligible for the occupation with the equipment which the prospective worker must have to insure success and advancement" (p. 174).

---

*Boyhood and Lawlessness. The Neglected Girl.* West Side Studies Carried on under the Direction of PAULINE GOLDMARK, Formerly Associate Director, New York School of Philanthropy, Member of Industrial Board, New York Department of Labor. New York: Survey Associates, 1914. Pp. xix+143.

For two years the New York School of Philanthropy maintained, through the generosity of the Russell Sage Foundation, a Bureau of Social Research under the direction of Miss Goldmark. It was then planned to make a study of a West Side district in New York, and in these two studies are presented some of the results of that undertaking. The first, "Boyhood and Lawlessness," is the work of two young men, E. M. Barrows and C. S. Childs, who lived in the district for nearly two years, whose experiences in that neighborhood interprets the records of 294 boys—learned of from the Children's Court (202), the Big Brother Movement (43), a special club (10), the Charity Organization Society (8), and from various other miscellaneous sources (31). The seven chapters deal with "His Background," "His Playground," "His Games," "His Group," "His Home," "The Boy and the Court," and "The Center of the Problem."

These types are direct and logical products of neighborhood conditions, just as many of the ways in which the boy finds his recreation simply announce the fact that he must invent for himself what his home fails to provide. The boy's inner life is bleak and wretched because every normal instinct of youth, all the qualities of which future men are made, have been sapped and stunted by the gray, grim neighborhood in which even play is crime. There are ten thousand hopeless little tragedies on the Middle West Side today; and our only answer to their appeal is to call for the police [p. 160].

There is an appendix, giving the statistical material; and there are twenty-eight photographs taken by Lewis W. Hine.

"The Neglected Girl," by Ruth S. True and Josephine Roche, is the second of these studies in neighborhood neglect. The chapters deal with "The Grip of

Poverty," "Where the School Law Failed," "Wage-Earning and New Relations at Home," "The Will to Play," "The Breakdown of Family Protection," and "The Italian Girl." There are two appendices on "The Economic Condition of the Families" and on "School Attendance Data." And so the volume of evidence swells, showing the cost of public and municipal neglect in child-misery and lost youth. Surely sooner or later the community will be aroused to its own concern for safeguarding the youth, whether boys or girls, in city homes and in city streets.

---

*Mental and Physical Measurements of Working Children.* By HELEN THOMPSON WOOLLEY and CHARLOTTE RUST FISCHER. Psychological Monographs, etc., XVIII, No. 1.

In this study from the laboratory of the Vocation Bureau of Cincinnati is published the first results of a study now in progress since 1910, of which, since 1911, Mrs. Woolley has been in charge. The investigation has for its purpose the collection of facts with reference to the comparative effect of working life and of school attendance upon children fourteen and fifteen years old. The undertaking is of course a very difficult one, possible only under such conditions as are fixed by the Ohio Child Labor Law of 1910, and valuable, too, only when conducted under such conditions of scholarly preparation, scientific equipment, and open-mindedness as characterize Mrs. Woolley's work.

The first instalment gives the results of tests invented and applied to 800 boys and girls when they left school at fourteen and to 679 of them later when they had been at work about a year.

The description of the tests and of the results of their application to these children has great significance for all interested in obtaining the best opportunities for normal children; while the discussion of the possible development along the same lines, of tests which may supplement the Binet-Simon tests and give a sound basis for measuring persons over ten years of age, gives hope of wiser judgment in the case of adolescent and adult subnormal persons than are now issuing from psychopathic clinics and bureaus of psychopathic research.

S. P. BRECKINRIDGE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

---

*Psychology of High School Subjects.* By CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD. New York: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 514. \$1.50.

It starts right. It begins with a survey of the teacher's problem. It limits its service to the special workers who most need light: the trainers of adolescent youth. It recognizes the practical fact that we are more narrowly governed by fashion as to what we in the high school shall teach than we are as to what we shall wear. A high-school man can individually indulge in a soft

shirt and a roll collar, and by independent personality bear himself well, but on offering himself as a trainer of youth in an established school he must submit to the use of such algebra, such history, such literature for his exercise in training youth as tyrannical custom and its agent, a school board, require. The ordinary run of us are waiters in a restaurant with prescribed bills of fare. We are to keep our napery neat, our dishes hot, and to bring out from day to day the portions of our table d'hôte according to the standard.

Professor Judd could write a bigger book. He could choose a different basis. He could defend the theory that the proper purpose of a public high school is much larger than to dispense an arbitrary collection of studies, almost universally accepted, as the body of an education. In fact, throughout this volume you catch glimpses of a hope that some day high-school teachers will not be purveyors of Latin, of algebra, or of physics, but developers of men and trainers of women for that service in the world which theoretically justifies a democracy in expending public money for the building of schools and the hiring of us. He sees the ineffectiveness of our traditional organization wherein a company of specialists in narrowed studies are turned loose upon growing boys and girls who need the companionship of broad and generous personalities. "One of the gravest menaces," he says, "is the lack of general interest by special teachers." The expectation of citizens who support schools and of parents who send children is that the high school will be a potent influence in changing the person of fourteen as he is to the person of eighteen as he ought to be, a person more certain in the use of his powers, more disposed to use those powers for the good of society, which has paid for his training. This is no new proposition. Plato formulated it, Rousseau frantically promulgated it, the encyclopedists, who inspired the Fathers of America, elaborated it. The lawmakers who provided, here, for free and universal education promised such a consummation, but the high schools of America, absorbing the usages of their parent Latin schools and private academies, have never reached a point where man-culture has been put in the first rank of their purposes, while the means of man-culture have been relegated to a supplementary consideration. See our hundreds turned from school into society untrained because they cannot master Latin. I see them ceasing study because they are not fit for algebra. I see the training of youth for manhood committed to persons who have been concerning themselves almost altogether with the study of geometry, that they may teach it instead of children. We want more teachers who have had courses in boyology and girlistics, who have perfected themselves in the knowledge of what the qualities of superb manhood and womanhood are, and by what exercises those qualities are encouraged toward perfection. This is no visionary pursuit, but the science that has engaged the greatest minds since the world began. Professor Judd would shift the center of a teacher's attention from a book to a person. He would have us know that the growing things in our gardens are of more importance than the rake,

the trowel, and the specific brand of fertilizer furnished by the college which taught us and the school board which directs our farm. We teachers of the high school who honestly testified twenty-five years ago that we had gained no benefit from the study of psychology did nothing surprising. The minds of boys and how they grow were not our chief concern. Boys were in front of the counter; we behind it. We had our ready-made suits according to the standard. If the customers contrived to fit what we dealt in, we clothed them with a high-school education. "What is your purpose in presenting this course of history?" Colonel Parker asked the high-school teacher. "To cover the period from 1492 to 1861," the truthful lady answered, and was content. Professor Judd is not content. This book abounds in frank, though unirritating, reproof of high-school complacency. It reflects the spreading tendency of high-school managers to realize the fatuity of attempting to defend expensive education upon the old argument that the best men of past generations rose into eminence from the conventional studies. Because Webster, Everett, and Sumner reached distinction, Smith, Jones, and Brown are given the calculus. Great Agassiz dissected fishes, so we cut up clams in high-school laboratories. The fallacy which Professor Judd remarks is that the covering of a subject may not give the power desired. An ax of itself will cut no wood. The careful eye, the trusty arm, the cunning hand decree that the tool will make, not mar. The physicist who ruled my class damaged all of us because he knew not boys nor growth, not mental power, only physics. This order is changing. In a Brooklyn school, yesterday, the principal's official approval of a lesson contained the entry to be completed by the teacher, "What personal effect is this lesson planned to produce?" This is pinning instruction down so tight that the teacher born, not made, is put to a great disadvantage. That specific Brooklyn query could be taken as the essence of this book of Dr. Judd's. What can these high-school studies do for John? How do you make them do it? How shall you, using these educational fertilizers, bring this human plant toward blossoming and bearing?

It is a timely book. It starts with the actual studies found in the high-school program and shows their uses as developers of personal efficiency and of social value. It is understandable. It has no fussy, technical language like the talk of the young medical student. Its analysis of a typical textbook on geometry would be intelligible to an ordinary high-school student. The chapter on the psychology of language, the one on English courses, the pages on manual skill, show an interested familiarity with current improvements and with proposed advancement in them that could be obtained only by a man who spends a great deal of time in high-school classrooms, or who meets and draws out many high-school teachers. His discussions of science, of history, of fine arts, and of industrial courses are up to 1915 and exhilaratingly beyond. I can see how a high-school headmaster, taking up a chapter at a time, before exercising his supervisory duties over various departments,

might inspire a school with a purpose so definite, so enlightened, so thoroughly interesting as to bring to all but the hopelessly benighted teachers the delight of the skilled agriculturist, actually seeing his resources growing in the sunlight.

The present controversy upon general disciplinary value of formal studies and the possibility or impossibility of transferring power gained in one exercise to tendency in other lines of life has an illuminating chapter. There is a chapter upon teaching high-school pupils how to study. It provides for standards of self-measurement. It dwells convincingly upon the supreme necessity of cultivating the desire and the habit of enjoyable and economical and productive use of one's own mind. Intention to proceed this author regards as a test of the efficiency of work already done. There is not much support in this handbook for the doctrines of my dullest teachers, who preached that drudging is the most educative of processes. They affected to despise the sugar-coated pill. Meantime this wicked world has gone on taking away the shock from surgery and developing a twilight sleep for childbirth. Our psychologist discriminates between making tasks easy and making them interesting. He does not suggest excluding the vigor from mental exercise. The mathematics he calls for is more robust than ordinary. His requirement is rather to tone the system of the learner and to train the adaptive power of the instructor so that they will essay with enthusiasm the hardest work that they can find. I must confess I like this book. I am enthusiastic about it. It puts my business several notches higher toward the professions in which a man's purposes and results are bigger than his tools. I am too content with graduates who carry off pieces of the curriculum.

The final chapter of this thesis proposes in place of my knowledge dispensary a social trainery, a great factor of public service, not so much concerned with perpetuation of scholarship as with breeding the virtues of manliness and of womanly strength. It calls for live personalities, devising means of growth and able to insure it. It meets the present circumstances and recognizes that we are in bonds to custom. But it foreshadows the reconstruction of schooling which shall begin with the questions, "What are the types of manhood the nation needs?" "What forms of human experience producing such can I provide in the few years in which the growing material is entrusted to me?" The statesmen who established our public education were largely forward-lookers. But the vanes upon our schoolhouses have been set by breezes blowing out of antiquity. We have learned our trade by the study of old models. We have been loth to abandon what it has cost us time and money to acquire. Conservers there must be, but the exclusive business of preserving runs too much to dried fruits and to attics filled with canned goods. Judd wants more inventors and discoverers among us, and fewer librarians who deal in old editions, more creators of living thought and power. His book points definitely a way.

WILLIAM McANDREW



*Youth, School and Vocation.* By MEYER BLOOMFIELD. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. xi+273.

Notwithstanding the somewhat partial attitude of the author toward the movement for vocational guidance, his timely book will be of real service to school men generally because of the insight which it gives into the complex problem of helping young people to secure a foothold in occupational life.

His philosophy is convincing but his remedies for existing evils seem to be out of reach of the majority of American communities, at least for some time to come. His plan involves the collection of much accurate information regarding vocations; the analysis, by specialists, of the characteristics of the children; and counseling, chiefly through a special bureau co-operating with the public schools.

He offers little encouragement to the small high school to work out its own and its pupils' salvation without this expert assistance. He says, "The schools have done little, specifically, to point the way. In a sense the schools deserve much praise for the little they have been doing toward a vocational start in life; for with no resources, time, or preparation their efforts in this difficult field could only have been absurdly inadequate and possibly harmful."

The author believes, however, that "work-seeking in this country will more and more come under the direction of public agencies," the juvenile employment bureau, and the public school. This is rendered necessary by the frightful waste in the present system, or want of system, by which children seek to get their "start in life."

One-third of the book is given to "Suggested Material" which, with the chapter on "Organization" will give the reader many suggestions for inaugurating the work in his own community, even though he may be unable to have the services of a bureau of specialists.

FRANK M. LEAVITT



## BOOK-NOTES

NOTE: Some of these books will be reviewed in detail in later numbers of the *School Review*.

BLOOMFIELD, MEYER. *Youth, School and Vocation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. \$1.25.

———. *Readings in Vocational Guidance*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. \$2.25.

HENDERSON, CHARLES RICHMOND. *Citizens in Industry*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1915. \$1.50.

DAVIS, JESSE BUTTRICK. *Vocational and Moral Guidance*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915.

DOOLEY, WILLIAM. *Vocational Mathematics*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1915.

SCHNEIDER, HERMAN. *Education for Industrial Workers. A Constructive Study Applied to New York City*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1915.

Dr. Herman Schneider, Dean of the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati, is known as one of the most progressive educational leaders of the present day. The educational world is watching with a great deal of interest the task which he at present shares with Superintendent Wirt, of Gary, Indiana, of solving certain of the most pressing problems presented by the New York City schools. The present volume is the latest of the School Efficiency Series, edited by Professor Paul H. Hanus, which embodies the reports of the different investigators of the New York City School Survey. Dr. Schneider's book is a reprint of his report on the status of vocational education in New York City schools. The book considers the conditions of modern industry and how best to prepare children for earning their living under these conditions. The difference between energizing and enervating occupations is made clear. What vocational and continuation schools are, and what they can do to train for energizing occupations and to counteract the tendency to drift into the enervating lines of work, are subjects on which Dr. Schneider has valuable conclusions to offer.

NOBLE, H. G. S. *The New York Stock Exchange in the Crisis of 1914*. Garden City, N.Y.: The Country Life Press, 1915.

In this valuable pamphlet the President of the New York Stock Exchange presents facts of great interest to all students of finance.

BALLOU, FRANK WASHINGTON. *The Appointment of Teachers in Cities*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1915.

HARPER, JANE R. *A Survey of Opportunities for Vocational Education in and near Philadelphia*. Philadelphia, Pa.: Public Education Association, 1915. \$0.25.

This pamphlet brings together in easily understood form virtually all the data that are available concerning the vocational opportunities for boys and girls of Philadelphia. It should serve as a model for similar studies in all industrial centers.

AYERS, LEONARD P. *A Measuring Scale for Ability in Spelling*. Advance edition—not sold. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1915. \$0.30.

ORFIELD, MATTHIAS W. *Federal Land Grants to the States with Special Reference to Minnesota*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Bulletin, University of Minnesota, 1915.

A historical study of value for classes in history and political science.

PEASE, CLARA A. *A First Year Course in General Science*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1915. \$1.20.

This course is a general comprehensive view of science rather than a book of general information. It is designed to teach first-year pupils the relation and the interdependence of commonly recognized sciences, and to prepare them for intelligent work in any science offered in high schools during the three later years. The illustrations are accompanied by explanatory notes and questions which will make the picture a subject of study equal in importance to the text itself. The course here presented has been followed for four years in a large public high school by several teachers, experienced and inexperienced, with uniform success and with increasing popularity and satisfactory results.

FORBUSH, WILLIAM BYRON. *The Boy Problem in the Home*. Boston: The Pilgrim Press, 1915. \$1.10.

This volume is devoted to the parent's point of view; covering the topics of home government, sex discipline, and religious nurture of boys in the home.

MATHEWS, LOIS KIMBALL. *The Dean of Women*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. \$1.50.

WOOLEY, EDWIN C. *Written English*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1915.

This book is prepared with the same care as the others by the same author. Its aim is to teach pupils to write correctly, not with literary excellence. It is built on the principle of drill. The book is thoroughly worth the study of any superintendent looking for a high-school text.

ALLEN, PHILLIPS, and SCHOELL, FRANK L. *French Life*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1915. \$0.70.

CARUS, PAUL. *Goethe with Special Consideration of His Philosophy*. Chicago, Ill.: Open Court Publishing Co., 1915. \$3.00.

WALLIS, B. C. *The Teaching of Geography*. Cambridge, Mass.: The University Press, 1915. \$0.90.

KNIGHT, HOWARD R. *Play and Recreation in a Town of 6,000*. New York City: Russell Sage Foundation, 1915. \$0.25.

A painstaking and minute description of the recreational activities of both youths and adults in Ipswich, Massachusetts. Suggestive for school principals facing the problem of organizing recreations.

ROMAN, FREDERICK WILLIAM. *The Industrial and Commercial Schools of the United States and Germany*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915. \$1.50.

MCCABE, JOSEPH. *The Principles of Evolution*. Baltimore, Md.: Warwick & York, Inc., 1915. \$0.40.

BOYNTON, PERCY H. *Principles of Composition*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. \$1.00.

SARGENT, PORTER S. *The Best Private Schools of the United States and Canada.* Boston, 50 Congress St.: Porter S. Sargent, 1915. \$3.00.

The book makes a study of all kinds of secondary schools, individually and collectively. It presents also a short historical sketch of the whole private-school system, and alphabetical classified lists of educational associations, periodicals, publishers, teachers' agencies, and dealers in school supplies. As an encyclopaedia of secondary schooling it will be particularly valuable to parents, teachers, and educators in general. Incidentally it will fill a long-felt want.

CAJORI, FLORIAN. *School Arithmetic-Intermediate Book.* New York: Macmillan, 1915. \$0.40.

EMERSON, OLIVER FARRAR. *A Middle English Reader.* New York: Macmillan, 1915. \$2.00.

Francis W. Parker School Year Book. Chicago, 330 Webster Ave.: Francis W. Parker School, 1915. \$0.35.

Contains illustrated articles on "Mental Imagery in Geography," "The Pupil's Experience as the Source of His Problems in Arithmetic," "Experience-Building in the Teaching of Geometry," "Points of Contact of English with School Activities," "How Dramatization of Stories Helps in Teaching Modern Languages," "School Heating and Ventilation—A Study in Applied Physics," "Some Laboratory Experiments Involving Real Chemical Problems," "The Study of an Industry," "A Study of Foods and Food Supply," "Excursions," and several other articles relating to both elementary- and high-school teaching.

GENUNG, JOHN FRANKLIN, and HANSON, CHARLES LANE. *Outlines of Composition and Rhetoric.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. \$1.00.

Completes the last two years of the high-school course, following Mr. Hanson's text for the first two years.

HINCHMAN, WALTER S. *A History of English Literature.* New York: The Century Company, 1915. \$1.30.

An admirable book, well suited for high-school classes. Beautifully bound and illustrated.

LINCOLN, LILLIAN I. *Everyday Pedagogy.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. \$1.00.

KIRKPATRICK, E. A. *The Use of Money.* Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1915. \$1.00.

Tells when the child should begin to learn the real value of money and how to dispose of it properly, and suggests methods by which training may be given.

COOK, ALBERT S., and BENHAM, ALLEN R. *Specimen Letters.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. \$0.35.

Admirably selected letters of great literary value for high-school classes.

CHAMBERLAIN, CHARLES J. *Methods in Plant Histology.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1915. \$2.25.

BALLARD, PHILIP BOSWORTH. *Handwork as an Educational Medium.* New York: Macmillan, 1915. \$1.00.

DRUMMOND, W. B. *An Introduction to School Hygiene.* With fifty illustrations. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1915. \$1.25.

LYSTER, ROBERT A. *School Hygiene.* Second edition. Baltimore, Md.: Warwick & York, Inc., 1915. \$1.15.

